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WITH CHRONOLOGICAL AND GENEALOGICAL TABLES, AND
NUMEROUS QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION



W. & R. CHAMBERS, *Wm. ed.*
LONDON AND EDINBURGH

1874

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PREFACE.

THE present volume, designed for private instruction as well as for schools, is offered as a comprehensive outline of British History, such as may remain upon the mind of any intelligent person after having studied a larger work. It unites the History of the Three Kingdoms; the Editors being convinced that, by having their history presented separately, the natives of one of the countries are apt to remain in ignorance of the others, and thereby to possess no means of counteracting those antipathies, or at least imperfect sympathies, which still prevail amongst the various nations combined under the British Empire, and which lead to more important consequences, perhaps, than is generally supposed.

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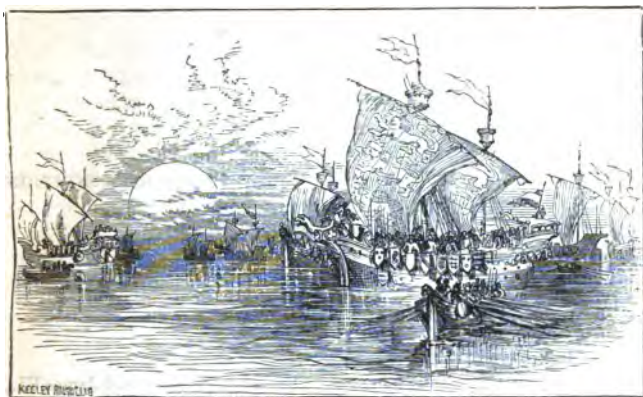
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HISTORY

OF THE

BRITISH EMPIRE.

ROMAN PERIOD: A.D. 43-449.

1. **P**REVIOUS to the Christian era, the British Islands, in common with the whole of northern and western Europe, were occupied by barbarous tribes, who bore nearly the same relation to the civilised nations of Greece and Italy, which the North American Indians of the present day bear to the inhabitants of Great Britain and the United States. The Romans, who for ages had been extending their power over their rude neighbours, had concluded the conquest of Gaul, now called France, when, in the year 55 before Christ, their celebrated commander, Julius Cæsar, learning from the merchants of that country that there was another fertile land on the opposite side of the narrow sea now termed the British Channel, resolved to

proceed thither, and subject it also to the Roman arms. Disembarking on the coast of Kent, he soon overawed the savage natives, though they were naturally warlike, and averse to a foreign yoke. He did not, however, gain a firm footing in Britain till the succeeding year (54 before Christ), when he employed no fewer than eight hundred vessels to convey his troops from Gaul. Except on the coasts, where some tillage prevailed, the British tribes lived exactly as the Indians now do, upon animals caught in hunting, and fruits which grew spontaneously. They stained and tattooed their bodies, and had no religion but a bloody idolatry called Druidism.

2. Little was done on this occasion to establish the Roman power in Britain; but about a century afterwards,

A.D. 43. namely, in the year of Christ 43, when the Emperor Claudius was reigning at Rome, another large army invaded the island, and reduced a considerable



Coin of Claudius representing his
British triumph.

part of it. A British prince called Caradoc, or Caractacus, who had made a noble defence against their arms, was finally taken and sent prisoner to Rome, where he was re-

garded with the same wonder as we should bestow upon a Caffre chief who had greatly obstructed the progress of our settlements in Southern Africa. In the

A.D. 61. year 61, an officer named Suetonius did much to reduce the Britons, by destroying the numerous Druidical temples in the Isle of Anglesea; religion having, in this case as in many others since, been a great support to the patriotic cause. He soon after overthrew the celebrated British princess Boadicea, who had raised an almost general insurrection against the Roman power.

3. In the year 79, Agricola, a still greater general, extended the influence of Rome to the Firths of

A.D. 79. Forth and Clyde, which he formed into a frontier, by connecting them with a chain of forts. It was his policy,

after he had subdued part of the country, to render it permanently attached to Rome, by introducing the pleasures and luxuries of the capital. He was the first to sail round the island. In the year 84, having gone beyond the Forth, he was opposed by a great concourse of the rude inhabitants of the north, under a chief, named by the Roman historians, Galgacus, whom he completely overthrew at *Mons Grampius*, or the Grampian Mountain; a spot which cannot be identified in modern geography. Tacitus, a writer related to Agricola, gives an impressive account of this conflict, and exhibits the bravery of the native forces as very remarkable; but the correctness of his details cannot be much depended on.

4. It appears that Agricola, while on the west coast of Scotland, was desirous of also conquering Ireland, which he thought would be useful, both as a medium of communication with Spain, and as a position whence he could overawe Britain. He formed an acquaintance with an Irish chief, who, having been driven from his country by civil commotions, was ready to join in invading it. By him Agricola was informed that the island might be conquered by one legion and a few auxiliaries. The inhabitants, according to Tacitus, bore a near resemblance to the Britons.

5. It is generally allowed that the Romans experienced an unusual degree of difficulty in subduing the Britons; and it is certain that they were baffled in all their attempts upon the northern part of Scotland, which was then called Caledonia. The most they could do with the inhabitants of that country, was to build walls across the island to keep them by themselves. The first wall was built in the year 121, by the Emperor Hadrian, **A.D. 121.** between Newcastle and the Solway Firth. The second, an earthwork and trench, was formed in the reign of the Emperor Antoninus, about the year 140, as a connection of the line of forts which Agricola **A.D. 140.** had established between the Firths of Forth and Clyde. This boundary would appear to have not been long kept, for it is supposed that, about 210, the Emperor Severus fortified the rampart between the Tyne and Solway. Roman armies, however, probably under the command of Lollius Urbicus, had penetrated far beyond the more northerly wall, although,

unfortunately, no accounts of their reception are preserved. From comparing Roman remains lately discovered, with ancient geographies, it is held as established that the Romans reached the north-east end of Loch Ness, near the modern town of Inverness. The number of roads and camps which they made, and the regularity with which the country was divided into stations, prove their desire to preserve these conquests.

6. When the conquest was thus so far completed, the country was divided into six provinces, of the following names and boundaries :—

Britannia Prima, or First Britain, to the south of the Thames and Severn.

Britannia Secunda, or Second Britain, containing Wales and the adjoining districts along the Severn.

Flavia Cæsariensis, from the two former provinces to the German Ocean, the Humber, and the Dee.

Maxima Cæsariensis, to the north of the Humber from its mouth to the mouths of the Tyne and Eden.

Valentia, from the Tyne and Eden to the Forth and Clyde.

Vespasiana, the level country beyond the Forth, over which the Romans had only a temporary dominion.

7. The country was governed in the usual manner of a Roman province ; generally under a pro-præfect. Sometimes the emperor himself was present. A campaign against the northern barbarians, in the year 208, was conducted by the emperor Severus in person. Constantine the Great, who is distinguished as the first Roman emperor who embraced the Christian religion, and took it under his protection, was at York when he commenced his reign (A.D. 306). Magnentius, who ended a short reign in 353, was a native of our island. Britain often affected by her aid or her resistance the current of events in the empire at large ; and on several remarkable occasions, she sent large armies of her youth to fight upon the continent. Throughout the country, agriculture and other peaceful arts were pursued ; and there were many cities and towns containing temples, baths, mints for coinage, theatres, and other buildings denoting a certain amount of civilisation in the inhabitants. The towns bearing *chester* or *cester* as part of

their names—from *castrum*, Latin for a camp—are all of Roman origin: others which once flourished have been so completely destroyed, that the plough now passes over their sites. The religion of the Gospel made its way at an early period into Roman Britain. We hear of it being there in comparative purity in 209; at a synod held at Arles, in France, in 314, there were bishops and other church-dignitaries, representing Britain. There is, however, great obscurity over the history of Christianity in Britain during the Roman sway. A legend regarding St Alban, who was said to be the first British martyr, A.D. 303, and in whose honour the grand church of St Alban's was afterwards reared, is now much doubted.

Conquest by the Saxons: A.D. 449-585.

8. At length a time came when the Romans could no longer defend their own proper country against the barbarous nations of the north of Europe. The troops were withdrawn from Britain, which was informed that it must thenceforward provide for its own defence. There **A.D. 420.** then ensued a brief period of anarchy, during which a Roman faction struggled with one composed of the native people; the former, headed by a chief named Aurelius Ambrosianus; the latter, led by a prince named Vortigern; while attacks from the Caledonians of the north added to the distress and confusion. It is stated, but not upon the best authority, that the people became so harassed by their enemies, as to send a letter, called 'The Groans of the Britons,' to the Roman consul Ætius, telling how the barbarians drove them to the sea, and the sea threw them back upon the barbarians, so that they had only a choice between the swords of their enemies and the waves; and entreating for help, which, however, could not be rendered.

9. In these circumstances, Vortigern resolved to call foreign aid from another quarter. There dwelt at this time in the countries opposite to Britain, a set of warlike tribes, much

given to piratical adventure—the *Jutes*, in modern Jutland, a part of Denmark; the *Angles*, in the country now forming the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein; and the *Saxons*, in the provinces around the mouth of the Elbe. Invited by Vortigern, three keels or little ships, full of Jutes, under the command of two brothers, named HENGIST and Horsa, landed in Kent in the year 449. This was only the beginning of a series of invasions, which ended in giving a new set of masters and a new name to the southern part of the island. About 455, many more of Hengist's countrymen having arrived, he was able to contend with the native chiefs, and a victory over them at Cray established him and his successors as kings of Kent. There followed a settlement by the Saxons, under a chief named ELLA, in the country next adjacent to the westward (A.D. 477), and another, also by the Saxons, under CERDIC, in the modern Hampshire (A.D. 495). It is thought to have been in opposing Cerdic, that a British prince named ARTHUR performed certain feats of valour on which much romance and fiction has since been founded. In reality, while there is scarcely a more celebrated name than that of King Arthur, it is doubtful if such a person ever existed.

10. About the year 530, a number of obscure Saxon adventurers established themselves on the north side of the Thames, gradually advancing till they obtained possession of London, which was then known only as a small trading town. As Ella's kingdom was called *Sussex*, that is South Saxons, and Cerdic's was named *Wessex*, or West Saxons, so this last was denominated *Essex*, that is, East Saxons. Some years

A.D. 547. later, we find the Angles pouring themselves in great numbers upon the remaining eastern shores, where they formed successively the kingdom of *East Anglia*, embracing the modern counties of Suffolk, Norfolk, and Cambridge; the kingdom of *Northumberland*, extending between the Humber and the Forth, and the kingdom of *Mercia*, which chiefly embraced the modern midland counties.

A.D. 586. From the Angles came the name *Angle-land*, or England, which gradually was applied to the whole island south of the Tweed. All of these invaders were heathens, and extremely barbarous; but they were possessed of so much warlike energy that the Britons either submitted

or gradually retired before them into Cornwall and Wales; provinces which continue to be mainly occupied by their descendants.

11. In the seventh century, we find in Britain seven Anglo-Saxon kingdoms, commonly recognised by historians as the **SAXON HEPTARCHY** (heptarchy from the Greek, signifying seven kingdoms); likewise three petty British kingdoms, extending along the west and more mountainous side of the island—*Wales*, with nearly its present limits; *Cumbria*, which comprised Cumberland and Westmoreland; and *Strathclyde*, which consisted of the shires of Dumbarton and Renfrew, with part of Lanarkshire, having the town of Dumbarton (then called Alclyde) for its capital. To the north of the Forth dwelt a nation called the Picts, who also had a king, and were, in all probability, the people with whom Agricola had fought under the name of Caledonians. In the Western Highlands there was another nation, known by the name of the Scots, or Dalriads, who had gradually migrated thither from Ireland, between the middle of the third century and the year 503, when they established, under a chief named Fergus, a monarchy destined in time to absorb all the rest. About the year 700, there were no fewer than fifteen kings, or chiefs, within the island, while Ireland was nearly in the same condition. In Britain, at the same time, five languages were in use, the Latin, Saxon, Welsh (or British), the Pictish, and the Irish. The prosperity of the whole country has been found to increase as these nations and principalities were gradually amassed together.

Introduction of Christianity.

12. **ALTHOUGH** the gospel had been preached to the British, and we hear of bishops established among them, it does not appear that they possessed a national church, or were generally christianised; otherwise we should not have found that Saxon England existed in a state of heathenism at the close of the sixth century. During the earlier part of the Saxon rule, the light of the gospel seems only to have been maintained in Cornwall, Wales, and other districts, where Saxon influence

was unknown. It was introduced into Ireland by a missionary named PATRICK, and about the same time **A.D. 430-464.** into Scotland by one named NINTAN, who built at Whithorn, in the modern Wigtonshire, a church called *Candida Casa*, the first such structure erected within the bounds of modern Scotland. From Ireland, a hundred years later, a holy man, named COLUMBA, migrated to Iona, one of the western islands, and thence began to diffuse a knowledge of Christianity into the western parts of Scotland. Still there was nothing but Paganism among the Saxons in England.

13. At length a mission, sent by Gregory of Rome, under a holy man named AUGUSTINE, landed on the Isle **A.D. 596.** of Thanet, and being favourably received by Ethelbert, king of Kent, was enabled to baptise great numbers of the people. From that time we must date the regular introduction of Christianity into England. The country was gradually divided into bishoprics; churches, generally of small size, were built; monasteries, or bodies of men devoted to a religious life, were established; and the blessings of education were also, to a small extent, diffused among the people.

Saxon England as One Kingdom.

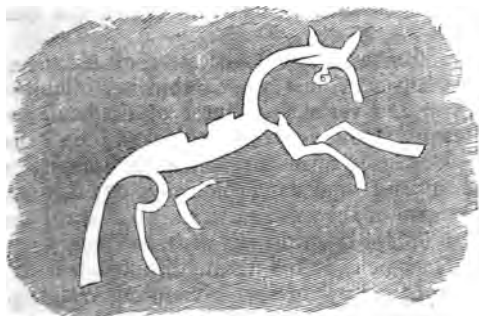
14. In time, some of the Saxon kingdoms became more powerful than the rest, and at length, about the year 800, **EGBERT**, king of Wessex, acquired a paramount influence over the six other states, though one or two of their kings continued for some time longer to reign. Thus, after an existence of from two to three centuries, the Saxon Heptarchy came to be resolved into one compact state, under the descendants of the Wessex line. **ALFRED**, so celebrated for his virtues, was the grandson of Egbert, and began to reign in the year 871.



Silver Coin of
Alfred.

15. About the time when Saxon England was becoming one kingdom, it was exposed to frequent invasions of the Danes, then a heathen and barbarous people, but bold and adventurous, and greatly skilled in the management of ships.

Having established themselves in Northumbria, they passed the Humber in the year 868, and committed the most frightful ravages amongst the industrious people of Mercia and East Anglia. Afterwards passing into Wessex, they were met at a place called *Æscesdun* (perhaps Aston, in Berkshire) by Alfred, and for the first time checked in their career of conquest. On the face of the chalk-hills near by, there is cut the gigantic figure of a white horse, supposed (as the



White Horse on Chalk-hills, Berkshire.

white horse was the Saxon emblem) to have been designed as a memorial of this victory. The Danes, nevertheless, held possession of the country, and for several years, Alfred and his *witan* or council could only meet their violence by vain treaties and concessions. For some time the Saxon monarch lived a skulking life in moorlands and amidst morasses, attended by a small band or wholly alone. It has been handed down to us, that on one occasion, in a mean disguise, he was beholden to the hospitality of a simple peasant, whose wife desired him, in her absence, to watch the bread which she had placed on the fire. Returning soon after, and finding that the stranger had been too busy mending his bow to keep the bread from burning, she did not hesitate to scold him for his negligence. At another time, disguised as a harper, he made his way into the camp of the Danish chief, and was enabled to judge of the strength and position

of his forces. Then, hastily summoning some faithful followers, he fell upon the Danes and gained a victory which re-established him in his kingdom. He spent the rest of his life in literary study, of which he was very fond, and in forming laws and regulations for the good of his people. He was, perhaps, the most able, most virtuous, and most popular prince that ever reigned in Britain; and all this is the more surprising, when we find that his predecessors and successors, for many ages, were extremely cruel and ignorant. He died in the year 901, in the fifty-third year of his age.

16. EDWARD, the son and successor of Alfred, and the inheritor of much of his father's abilities, established his authority over the various provinces of England, making it more thoroughly one kingdom than it had been before. In his time (901-924), towns or boroughs, occupied by men pursuing handicraft trades and commerce, began to be erected under protection of the royal castles. To Edward succeeded ATHELSTANE (924-940), who was perhaps the greatest of all the Saxon monarchs. He was undisputed master of the island south of the Firth of Forth, excepting Wales. He was the first English sovereign who made treaties and alliances with continental states. A combination being formed against him by the Welsh, Scots, and Danes, King Athelstane met them at a place called Brunanburgh, supposed to be in Northumberland, and overthrew them with such prodigious slaughter that peace was secured for the remainder of his reign. He took the opportunity to improve the laws left by his grandfather Alfred. He also favoured the translation of the Bible into English, which Alfred had begun.

17. Although reduced to subjection, the Danes continued to occupy large tracts of England, particularly in the eastern provinces. During a series of weak reigns following upon Athelstane, fresh invasions of the Danes took place, led by their own sovereigns. At length, in 1017, Knut or Canute, the son of Sweyn, king of Denmark, attained the sovereignty of England by successful wars with the Saxon princes, and by murdering all who stood in his way. After a career marked by great cruelty, he became softened by the general submis-

sion of the people, and for some years was a great and popular ruler. He was pious according to the views of his age, endowed many churches, gave large gifts to the clergy, and made a penitential pilgrimage to Rome. There was so far a moral grandeur in Canute, that he was disgusted with the flatteries of his courtiers. As they attributed to him a power above what was natural, he resolved to give them a practical reproof. Seating himself on the sea-shore, while the tide was rising, he commanded the waves to advance no further, and not to presume to wet his robe. The sea of course rolled on, and soon dashed upon him. Then rising and turning to his flatterers, he said to them—"Confess ye now how frivolous and vain is the might of an earthly king, compared to that Great Power which rules the elements, and can say unto the ocean, "Thus far shalt thou go and no farther." It is said that from that time he never again wore his crown. This great though barbarous king died in 1035, leaving England to one son, and Denmark and Norway respectively to two others. But with the son Hardiknute, after a reign of two years, the Danish rule in England came to a conclusion.



Silver Coin of Canute.

Early Condition of Ireland.

18. OVERLOOKING the fabulous accounts of Ireland, which represent it as having been colonised by the Phœnicians a thousand years before Christ, it is not to be doubted that, in the early centuries of the Christian era, while Britain was still comparatively barbarous, the neighbouring island was remarkable as a seat of learning and religion, scholars and priests being sent from it to civilise the rest of western Europe. About the end of the eighth century, it was invaded by troops of Scandinavians, the people then inhabiting the north of Europe, who plundered the country, took the greater part of it, and held it for some years under a chief of their own, who probably reigned over more territory than any of the Irish princes of the eighth and ninth centuries.

These invaders are said to have been defeated and nearly driven from the island, by Malachy, King of Meath; but reinforcements from Scandinavia, arriving in the middle of the ninth century, enabled them to re-assert their superiority. After much bloodshed, they established themselves permanently over a tract of country, and continued to be one of the most powerful septs or races in Ireland. They were called Ostmen or Eastmen, and from them part of the present mixed race of Ireland is descended.

Union of the Scottish and Pictish Kingdoms.

19. IN the year 853, Kenneth, King of the Scots, added the Pictish kingdom to his own, as ancient chroniclers say, by gaining a victory over the Picts, and putting them all to death, but more probably by intermarriage. In 1020, his descendant, Malcolm the Second, extended his dominions over not only the south of Scotland, but a part of the north of England. Thus the whole island, putting aside Wales, is found, about the middle of the eleventh century, to have constituted only two kingdoms of unequal magnitude and strength—the kingdom of England and the kingdom of Scotland, under which distinctions they were destined to continue for several hundred years, neither being able to make much impression upon the other.

Form of the Saxon Government.

20. THE form of government during the Saxon period is considered by some as the foundation of the more popular parts of our present constitution. It has been doubted whether the kings were elected by the people, or hereditary. It is clear that they were generally taken from one family, considered as the royal stock; but there was evidently no regular system of descent, and the most able or powerful member of the family seems always to have filled the

vacancy. The persons next in degree after the kings were the *aldermen*, or governors of shires, whose power became, on some occasions, almost equal to that of a king. The next order were the *thanes*, or land-proprietors, who appear to have been a very numerous class, and of different degrees of rank. The *ceorls*, or husbandmen, were the lowest order. These, although kept in a state of subjection, were protected by the laws, and, when they became possessed of sufficient property, might be advanced to the rank of thanes. The conquered British natives appear to be the only class who were in the situation of slaves. For the transaction of the more important matters, the king held a great council, called the Witan or Wittenagemot, which consisted of the prelates,



Saxon King sitting with his Wittenagemot.

the aldermen, and 'the wise men' of the country. What class was entitled to sit under this last name, does not clearly appear.

21. The country was divided into *counties*, at what time is not known, but in some districts, before the time of Alfred, to whom is generally assigned the credit of this arrangement. Each county was divided into districts called *hundreds*, either from the number of families or of land-proprietors in each. The hundreds were divided into *tithings*, and each

hundred, as well as each tithing, was presided over by an officer. Every freeman above twelve years of age was required to be enrolled in some tithing. The members of each tithing were a sort of perpetual security for each other's conduct. When one committed a crime, the others were obliged to produce him for punishment, or on failure, to pay the penalty; for the punishment of every crime was by fine. When one left his neighbourhood, any one who sheltered him became responsible for his conduct after the second night, and if no one would become responsible for him, he might be seized as a robber. Hundred courts were occasionally held, but the principal seat of justice was the county court. It was held at intervals by the aldermen and the bishop, along with the thanes or land-proprietors. There every freeman was obliged to appear and give his allegiance. Breaches of the peace, offences, and disputes about property, were there decided, and no appeal could be made to the king, unless the county court refused to decide. This system partially existed in the other countries of Europe before the feudal law prevailed; but it was brought to its greatest perfection under Alfred and his successors in England. An institution very much resembling *trial by jury* existed among the Saxons. It was usual for people in that barbarous age, when accused of any crime, to appeal to some sort of ordeal, such as a miraculous interposition of Providence, or single combat, in proof of their innocence. Among other ordeals, that of appealing to the oaths of twelve neighbours became customary among the Saxons and other northern nations; but the *trial by jury*, as afterwards practised, derived something from feudal usages. It has been much questioned whether the feudal system at all existed among the Saxons. As is natural, they imitated some of the customs of that system, as practised by the continental nations; but the system was not introduced as a regular form of government until the invasion of the Normans.

The Anglo-Saxon Church.

22. GRADUALLY under the Saxon rule Christianity was

spread throughout England by missionaries, and other holy men who devoted themselves to a religious life, either singly as anchorites, or collectively in monasteries. In time, churches were planted, in which a regular service was performed by priests, and for which men of wealth furnished endowments, either from good-will to religion, or for the satisfaction of an uneasy conscience. The country was divided into dioceses, for which bishops were appointed. After the church assumed a settled form, there was a time in which worldly-mindedness, luxury, and sloth, usurped the place of warm religious feeling among the clergy, and monasteries became scenes of vice and immorality. It is remarkable that during the early ages of the Anglo-Saxon church, there was no rule against the marriage of priests. A great change was brought about in the latter part of the tenth century by the celebrated Dunstan, archbishop of Canterbury. The influence which he acquired by extraordinary sanctity and self-denial, he employed in reforming the church, so as to bring it more under subjection to the Pope. He enforced celibacy among the clergy, and caused many of them to enter upon a monastic life. Dunstan was thought to possess miraculous gifts, and there is a strange story told of his being assailed in his cell by the devil, while working by night at some smith-work. Suddenly snatching his red-hot tongs from the fire, he seized the wicked spirit by the nose, and caused him to bellow with pain. It is certain that Dunstan was a man of singular ability, and that during several reigns he was the actual ruler of the country. He died in the year 988, and received the honours of a saint.

Conquest of England by the Normans.

23. TOWARDS the end of the ninth century, a band of Norwegian adventurers, under a chief named Rolf or Rollo, invaded the country bordering on the river Seine, in France, and in time established themselves there, as the Danes had done in England. A series of Dukes, descending from Rollo, became the rulers of that province, which, as the country of the Northmen or Normans, acquired the name of Normandy.

It was a family marked by great warlike energy, even for **that** age. Robert, the sixth in descent from Rollo, had a son named William, who succeeded him, notwithstanding illegitimacy of birth, and who proved to be a vigorous, warlike, and ambitious prince.

24. At the death of Hardiknute, the last Danish king of England (1042), a Saxon prince named EDWARD was placed on the throne, chiefly by the influence of Earl Godwin, a Saxon noble of remarkable vigour of character, possessing Kent, Sussex, and other portions of southern England. Edward was a man of extraordinary piety, so as to acquire the name of 'THE CONFESSOR'; it was thought that, through sanctity, he could heal certain diseases by his touch, and with him originated a royal practice of touching for the *king's evil*, or scrofula, which lasted down to the eighteenth century. Being essentially a weak man, he allowed Earl Godwin, whose daughter he had married, to exercise great influence in his government. But being also cousin to the Duke of Normandy, and having been educated at that court (for which reason he spoke only the French language), he, at the same time, cherished a number of Norman favourites. In struggles between Earl Godwin and these favourites, or between the Saxon and Norman influence, a great part of the Confessor's reign of twenty-four years was spent. When at length he died (January 1066), the deceased Earl Godwin's son, HAROLD, without any hereditary pretensions, made an easy seizure of the English crown. He was a brave man, and appears to have obtained the sovereignty with the general consent of the people, although, in a boy-prince named Edgar Atheling, there still existed a descendant of the old royal line.

25. Duke William of Normandy heard of Harold's accession with great indignation, for he considered the English throne as having been bequeathed to him by the Confessor, and had extorted from Harold a promise or oath to aid in securing it for him. He immediately gathered an army, which he embarked for England in order to make good his claim. When William landed in Sussex, Harold was engaged in the north in putting down a rebellion which had been raised against him by his brother Tostig. He hastened southward

to meet the Norman host, which was encamped on a field near Hastings. By waiting he might have increased his army, and perhaps weakened the enemy; but he resolved on immediate action. At a spot called Senlac (since named Battle), a furious conflict took place between the English and Norman troops (October 14, 1066); and for a time victory seemed to incline to the Saxon monarch. Seeing how firmly the English stood in their ranks, William caused his men to feign a retreat, and when the others followed in disorder, he attacked them vigorously. After a desperate resistance, the English host was overcome with great slaughter, Harold himself being amongst the dead.

26. England was thus *conquered* by Duke William, who immediately caused himself to be crowned king at Westminster. It was at first his policy to allow many of the Saxon prelates and statesmen to retain their offices and lands; but, either enraged at their revolts, or feeling himself become more powerful, he finally vested almost every estate and office in his own countrymen. Every method which could tend to annihilate the Saxons as a distinct people was attempted. Their customs and laws, especially the more popular ones, he tried to suppress. The French was made the language of the court. All law-papers were appointed to be drawn in it. The Norman-French literature was introduced, and the English language exposed to contempt, and even prohibited to be taught in schools. But all these measures were in vain, for both the language and the customs of the Saxons survived all efforts to crush them.

27. William also introduced the *Feudal System*, and on more tyrannical principles than those which prevailed in other countries. Its leading peculiarities were these:—The king was what is called superior, or lord paramount of all the lands in the kingdom. The proprietors of the lands were his vassals, and held it from him. Each of these proprietors might, in the same way, have vassals holding portions of his estate from him, as he held the whole from the king. In virtue of the compact formed between the two parties, the superior secured the vassal in his lands, while the vassal, in acknowledgment, gave homage, attended the councils of his superior, assisted in war, paid tribute to

support his establishment, and made donations on certain events in the superior's family ; as, for instance, when his eldest son was knighted. He was likewise subject to certain fines called *casualties*, as substitutes for certain obligations. Thus, if he married of his own accord, and not at the desire of his superior, he paid a fine ; a fine was paid when the property changed hands, to induce the superior to admit the new vassal ; and in other instances.

28. William I., surnamed THE CONQUEROR, reigned twenty-one years, being chiefly engaged all the time in completing the subjugation of the Saxons. He died (September 10, 1087) from an accident in the course of a military expedition against the King of France, and was buried in the church which he had built at Caen, in Normandy. He is allowed to have been a man of much sagacity, and a firm ruler, but of ferocious passions.

29. At the time of the Conqueror's death, his eldest son, Robert, happened to be at a greater distance from London than the second son, William, surnamed *Rufus*, from the red colour of his hair. The latter was consequently enabled to seize upon the crown, of which he could not afterwards be dispossessed, till he was shot accidentally by an arrow in the New Forest (August 2, 1100). Towards the close of this king's reign, the whole of Christian Europe was agitated by the first Crusade—an expedition for the recovery of the Holy Land from the Saracens. Robert of Normandy had a high command in this enterprise, and gained much fame as a warrior ; but while he was in Italy, on his return, his youngest brother Henry usurped the throne left vacant by William, so that Robert was again disappointed of his birth-right. HENRY THE FIRST—surnamed *Beauclerk*, from his being a fine scholar—was a prince of some ability ; but he disgraced himself by putting out the eyes of his eldest brother, and keeping him nearly thirty years in confinement.

Macbeth—Malcolm Canmore.

30. For some years before the Norman Conquest, the throne of Scotland was usurped by MACBETH, who had killed the

preceding king, Duncan II., and driven out his son Malcolm, the rightful heir. Macbeth reigned for a long time securely, and is said to have been a comparatively good ruler; but at length, his situation becoming difficult, he fortified the hill of Dunsinnan, in Perthshire, designing there to defend himself to the last extremity. The fabulous histories of the period relate that he had been assured by witches that he should never be overcome till Birnam wood should come to Dunsinnan, an event that seemed not likely to happen. Malcolm, having obtained assistance from Siward, Earl of Northumberland, marched against Macbeth; and his men having rested for a while at Birnam, provided themselves with branches from the forest to shelter them on their march from the heat of the weather. It is said that, when Macbeth saw them approaching in this manner, he gave himself up for lost, and fell an easy prey to Malcolm's troops.

31. MALCOLM was then crowned king. He was a prince of good natural understanding and dispositions, and from the uncommon size of his head, was called in the Celtic language of his people, Canmore. But he had received no education, and was unable even to read. It chanced that a Saxon princess, Margaret, with her brother, Edgar Atheling, took refuge in Scotland, and the king secured this lady for his wife. By her he was taught to read, and many civilised customs were introduced into his dominions. Many of her countrymen were also encouraged to settle amongst the Scots, who were thereby much improved in their manners.

32. At the death of Malcolm, in 1093, the crown was contested for a time by a usurper, called Donald Bane, and the elder sons of the late monarch; but finally it fell into the peaceable possession of his youngest son, **A.D. 1124.** DAVID THE FIRST, who was apparently a prince of much superior character to the Norman sovereigns who lived in the same age. The church of Rome having now gained an ascendancy in Scotland, David founded a considerable number of monasteries and churches for the reception of the ministers of that religion. All the most celebrated abbacies in Scotland took their rise in his time.

Stephen—Henry II.

33. HENRY BEAUCLERK of England, in order to strengthen his claim by a Saxon Alliance, married Maud, the daughter of Malcolm Canmore and of the Princess Margaret. By her he had an only daughter of the same name, whom he married first to the Emperor of Germany, and then to Geoffrey Plantagenet, eldest son of the Earl of Anjou, in France. This lady, and her children by Plantagenet, were properly the heirs of the English crown; but on the death of Henry, in 1135, it was seized by a usurper named STEPHEN, a distant member of the Conqueror's family, who reigned for nineteen years, during which the country was rendered almost desolate by civil wars, in which David of Scotland occasionally joined. At this time, in other quarters of Europe besides England, the birthright of princes frequently caused great bloodshed and misery among the people.

34. On the death of Stephen, the crown fell peacefully to HENRY THE SECOND, who was the eldest son of A.D. 1154. Maud, and the first of the Plantagenet race of sovereigns. Henry was an acute and politic prince, though not in any respect more amiable than his predecessors. Throughout this century, Christianity, as embodied by the Romish church, flourished in an extraordinary degree; many of the larger churches which still exist were then built; we have also to assign to this period many of the richly-endowed monasteries. In addition to the *Benedictine* order of monks, who had existed in England before the Conquest, there were now introduced two new orders, the *Cistercians* and *Carthusians*. A very large proportion of the land had fallen into the hands of the clergy, who accordingly possessed immense influence. Nevertheless, we find that Henry II., by his remarkable vigour of character, was able to save his country from being so entirely subjected to the Romish church as were some others. By a set of decrees, called, from the place in Wiltshire where they were passed, the *Constitutions of Clarendon*, he enforced (A.D. 1164) a subjection of the clergy to the civil power, which the present King of Italy is only now struggling to establish in his own dominions. The greatest difficulty of the king arose from the pride and

obstinacy of the primate of Canterbury, the celebrated Thomas à Becket. Thomas, being of Saxon origin, enjoyed on that account a popularity which, with his personal qualities, made him a formidable adversary. After a long series of struggles between King Henry and the Archbishop, four courtiers were provoked to go unauthorisedly to the church of Canterbury, where, by way of a favour to their sovereign, they fell upon Thomas, and barbarously killed him at one of his own altars (December 1171). It was an imprudent as well as wicked act, for it caused Thomas to be hailed as a saint and martyr, and the king was so far humbled in consequence, as to be obliged to perform a miserable penance, receiving upon his bare back eighty lashes from the monks of Canterbury. We must the less wonder at this circumstance, when we consider that, about this time, the Pope had power to cause two kings to perform the menial service of leading his horse.

35. Henry had a beautiful mistress named Rosamond Clifford, or usually Fair Rosamond, for whom he is said to have built a retreat, or bower, at Woodstock, of which the approaches were so intricate, that no stranger could find his way through them. It is added that the queen, becoming jealous of the influence of this lady over her husband, took an opportunity, in the king's absence, to enter her bower, and oblige her to drink poison, of which she died. Henry was a man of prompt wit, of which an example is given by historians. As he travelled through the country, the prior and monks of St Swithin's Abbey threw themselves in his way, in the mire, complaining that the Bishop of Winchester had ordered them to have three dishes less at table every day. The king asked how many dishes the bishop had left, to which they answered, 'Ten.' 'I myself have but three,' said the king, 'and I enjoin the bishop to reduce you to the same number.'

36. Henry II. was the most powerful king that had yet reigned in Britain. He possessed great hereditary domains in France, for which he did homage to the king of that country. He at the same time exacted homage from William of Scotland, the grandson of David, a monarch of great valour, who took the surname of *the Lion*, and who reigned from 1165 to 1214. It was during the reign of Henry II. that Ireland became a part of the dominions of the English king.

The Conquest of Ireland.

37. In the eleventh and twelfth centuries, the Irish appear to have been in a ruder state than they were in the time of the Heptarchy. It is said by an Irish historian that they possessed, notwithstanding their numerous wars, hardly any fortified places, and that the earliest building of stone and lime was the castle of Tuam, built in 1161 by Roderick O'Connor. The country was divided into five kingdoms, Leinster, Munster, Ulster, Connaught, and Meath; but there were many inferior and nearly independent principalities. It seems to have been the practice to choose one of the five kings as a sort of president of the body, or nominal king of the whole of Ireland. A general legislative body or council seems to have been held, but with what amount of power has not been ascertained. The chiefs were continually at variance with each other, and not only was the soil which should provide the bread of the poorer classes desolated by wars, but the people were obliged to pay enormous tributes, to enable their chiefs to carry on these contests. It may be added, that the country was crowded with churchmen, the number of bishops in 1152 being three hundred. Of this period of Irish history there are many fine architectural remains and monuments.

38. Such was the state of matters when some English barons were tempted to cross to Ireland as partisans of the conflicting parties, resolving to take advantage of any opportunity of profiting themselves which might occur. Dermot MacMurchad, King of Leinster, had carried off the wife of Terence O'Rourk, King of Breffney. The injured husband procured assistance from the other kings, and Dermot was deposed. He fled into England to seek assistance, and even followed King Henry to Guienne in France, and, falling at his feet, implored his interference. Henry had previously formed some design of invading Ireland, and had providently furnished himself with a bull or decree from the Pope, empowering him to conquer the country. He now either considered the project an imprudent one, or was too much occupied with other matters; for all the assistance he gave the Irish monarch was a letter of

credit to his subjects in England, allowing any who chose to assist in the recovery of Leinster. Dermot had some difficulty in finding any of the English barons sufficiently adventurous to undertake the project; but, by a promise of his daughter's hand, and the succession of his kingdom, he at last procured the aid of Strongbow, Earl of Chepstow. The adventure was afterwards joined by Robert Fitzstephen, Maurice Fitzgerald, and some other Welsh knights, whose names afterwards became conspicuous in Irish history. Fitzstephen's detachment consisted of thirty knights, sixty men in armour, and three hundred archers; and the others headed similar bodies. Several battles and considerable bloodshed took place, and Waterford and Dublin were stormed. As was natural, neither Dermot nor his allies were contented with merely recovering his ancient kingdom. Roderic O'Connor, nominally king of all Ireland, interfered, though rather too late, and made a treaty, which was broken by the allies. They were interrupted in their progress by the death of Dermot; and Henry, fearing lest his subjects should be too powerful, ordered them to return.

39. Henry landed in Ireland, with a force of 400 knights, and 4000 soldiers, which effectually turned the scale in favour of the English, and the Irish chiefs submitted in all quarters. A part of the country was portioned off in shires, and afterwards was called *the English Pale*, being the district in which the adventurers resided. It was the misfortune of this country that the English kings, often disturbed by commotions at home, found the easiest way of governing Ireland to be, by sending to it a succession of these adventurers, whose chief object was plunder. It is almost impossible to describe the dreadful confusion and anarchy which this system caused during the reigns of Henry II., Richard I., and John. The smallest kingdoms, or, more properly speaking, estates, became the subjects of wars between relations; men murdered their fathers and brothers, that they might succeed them; and the English settlers, instead of spreading peace and civilisation, divided themselves into parties with the natives, and often fought against each other.

Richard Cœur de Lion.

40. HENRY II. was much troubled in his latter years by the disobedience of his children. At his death, in 1189, he was succeeded by his son RICHARD I., styled *Cœur de Lion*, or the *Lion-hearted*, from his headstrong courage, and who was much liked by his subjects on that account, though it does not appear that he possessed any of the other good qualities



Richard I., from his Great Seal.

which usually command affection. At the coronation of Richard, the people were permitted to massacre many thousands of unoffending Jews throughout the kingdom. Almost immediately after his accession, he joined the King of France in a second crusade; landed in Palestine (1191), and fought with prodigious valour, but with no good result. On one occasion, being offended at a breach of truce by his opponent Saladin, he beheaded 5000 prisoners; whose deaths were immediately revenged by a similar massacre of Christian

prisoners. In 1192, he returned with a small remnant of his gallant army, and, being shipwrecked at Aquileia, wandered in disguise into the dominions of his mortal enemy, the Duke of Austria, who, with the Emperor of Germany, detained him till he was redeemed by a ransom, which impoverished nearly the whole of his subjects. This prince spent the rest of his life in unavailing wars with Philip of France, and was killed at the siege of a castle in Limousin, in 1199, after a reign of ten years, of which he had spent only about three months in England.

King John—Magna Charta.

41. JOHN, the younger brother of Richard, succeeded, although Arthur, Duke of Bretagne, the son of an intermediate brother, was the proper heir. John, who was at once vain, cruel, and weak, alienated the affections of his subjects almost at the very first, by the assassination of his nephew, which he is said to have performed with his own hands. It happens, however, that the weakness of kings is often the means of giving increased liberties and privileges to the people. The paltry tyranny and wickedness of John caused his barons to rise against him, and the result was, that he was compelled by them to grant what is **June 19, 1215.** called the *Magna Charta*, or great charter, for securing the various orders of his subjects in their rights.

42. Previously to this event, the Norman kings may be considered as having been absolute monarchs—all they had to dread being the greatness of their own vassals, who were accustomed to meet, when summoned by the king, and give their advice or consent on the matters laid before them, but did not exercise any decided control. The proper revenue of the crown consisted of the feudal casualties or fines formerly described. The principal of these was *Escuage*, which was a composition for the performance of the proper duties of military vassals. This was levied to the utmost, and found deficient, and then those who were not military vassals, but had acquired property by commerce, or other means, were compelled to pay *tallages* or *aids* to the king,

which were collected by his justices. Money was raised by selling justice, or by making those who were protected in the law-courts pay large sums to the king. In the midst of these oppressions, the people, and sometimes the Norman barons themselves, used to call for the restoration of the good old laws of the Saxon kings.

43. At length, Magna Charta established that the monarchy of England was limited, and that all classes of the people, from the highest to the lowest, had legal privileges which were not to be invaded. The feudal fines or casualties were restricted and made definite, and some of them abolished. The Escuage, or aid of the military vassals, was limited to particular occasions, unless an extra aid were given by consent of the general council of the dignified clergy and barons. Here we have the first practical assertion of the right of the nation to tax itself by its representatives, and the source of the practice of the great council, ultimately called *Parliament*, to demand the redress of some grievance before granting an aid. But, perhaps, the most valuable stipulation directly in favour of the common people, was that which appointed that 'no freeman shall be taken, or imprisoned, or *disseised* (that is, deprived of his lands), or outlawed, or banished, or anyways destroyed; nor will we pass upon him, or commit him to prison, unless by the legal judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land.' This has been considered as establishing two invaluable principles of our constitution: *first*, that no man is to be punished, or kept in confinement, until he has been put to a trial; and, *second*, that the trial must be by his equals, or a jury. Other provisions secured the privileges of burghs, and the proper forms of justice, and twenty-five barons were appointed to see that the charter should be safely kept.

44. Notwithstanding the immunities granted to the people at this period, a species of slavery, called *villeinage*, by which rural labourers were transferred or sold along with the soil, still existed in the country, and the Great Charter, instead of abolishing it, only rendered it less severe. Whatever may have been its presumed deficiencies, Magna Charta was a document of incalculable value to the people. The Pope, it appears, regarded it as a shameful violation of the royal prerogative, and excommunicated its authors, as being worse,

he said, than infidels. The opinion of a modern historian is very different. He says, 'To have produced the Great Charter, to have preserved it, to have matured it, constitute the immortal claim of England on the esteem of mankind.' And such is now the universal sentiment regarding this first bulwark of English liberty.

Henry III.—Origin of Parliament.

45. ON the death of John, he was succeeded by his son, Henry III., a worthless prince, who ascended the throne in his boyhood, and reigned fifty-six A.D. 1216. years, without performing one worthy act of sufficient consequence to be detailed. But while he was weak and useless, he was not dangerous, except in as far as he could not control the mischief worked by others; and hence it happened that some of the best portions of our constitution had their origin during his reign. It has been already observed, that, according to the feudal system, the king, as superior of all the lands in the country, was entitled to call all those who held lands of him to a great council. This was done in other countries besides England. Those who formed this council were the archbishops, the bishops, the abbots, and the barons. The barons appeared, not by virtue of the rank they held as noblemen, but of the lands they held of the crown, and it is believed that the churchmen were summoned for the same reason. The first appearance of a separation between the greater and the lesser barons, is in Magna Charta. There it is appointed that the king shall summon each great baron personally, by separate letters, but that all other freeholders shall be generally summoned by the sheriffs; a practice which may be said still to continue in force. Had all the freeholders of the country been thus brought together, the assembly would necessarily have been a very tumultuary one, and by no means fitted to transact business; besides, it was burdensome to the smaller barons to attend, and they always felt themselves under the influence of the greater. Hence it seems to have been judged fit that the smaller barons only should send representatives. As

early as the fourth and ninth years of Henry III., it would seem that knights were chosen in each shire to assess the supplies ; but these do not seem to have gone to Parliament. In the year 1244, besides calling the greater barons, the king, in his writ, distinctly orders each sheriff to send 'two good and discreet men of his county, whom the men of the county shall have chosen for this purpose, in the stead of all and each of them, to consider, along with the knights of other counties, what aid they will grant the king.'

46. The troubles of the period served to further the progress of the council or parliament towards its character as a representative body. The king had married a foreign woman. His mother, the widow of King John, married the Count de la Marche, and thus connected him with a new set of relations, likewise foreigners. To these he shewed such indulgence and favour as offended his English subjects ; and the insolence of the foreigners, who, filling many high places, disregarded the great charter, added to their discontent. Many of the powerful barons remonstrated, and at last revolted. Louis IX., King of France, a prince of singular character, full of romantic generosity, made several efforts to restore peace to England, by reconciling the king and the barons to each other, but in vain. At length, twenty-four barons, at the head of whom was Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, having undertaken the task of reforming the kingdom, almost completely superseded the royal authority. These, in 1261, called a Parliament, to which, for the sake probably of securing popularity, knights were to be elected from each shire, not merely to grant supplies, but to consult on the other matters connected with the government of the country. Still there were no representatives from the burghs. This was to be accomplished by Leicester soon afterwards. With the assistance of a Welsh army, and the populace of **A.D. 1264.** some of the cities, he overran the country, seized the king's person, and aimed at royal authority. In these circumstances, he summoned a Parliament to which the sheriffs were directed to return two knights for each shire, *and two citizens or burgesses from each city or borough.* Thus did Parliament gradually assume the important form which it has ever since borne in a greater or less degree ;

though it was not till about seventy years later that it was divided into two houses. De Montfort, who might be called the *Cromwell* of the thirteenth century, was overthrown by the royal forces, and slain at the battle of Evesham, in 1265.

Edward I.—Edward II.—Attempted Conquest of Scotland.

47. HENRY III., at his death in 1272, was succeeded by his son EDWARD THE FIRST, a prince as warlike and sagacious as his father was the reverse. He had no sooner mounted the throne, than he turned his attention to Wales, with the view of adding it to his dominions. In 1276, he first invaded that country, and quickly succeeded in obliging the native prince Llewellen to do homage to him as his superior. The Welsh contended bravely against the English for several years, but, in December 1282, were overthrown in a great battle at Llandweyr, when their prince Llewellen was taken and put to death. It is stated that, soon after, finding that the native bards or poets helped greatly to keep up the patriotic spirit of the Welsh, he collected them all at one place, and caused them to be destroyed. Since this period, Wales has formed a part of England; but the people continue to this day to be distinguished by many peculiarities of personal appearance and manners.

48. From the death of William the Lion, in 1214, Scotland had been ruled by two princes, named ALEXANDER THE SECOND and ALEXANDER THE THIRD, under whom it advanced considerably in wealth and civilisation. On the death of Alexander III., in 1286, the crown fell to his granddaughter Margaret, a young girl, whose father was Eric, King of Norway. Edward formed a treaty with the Estates of Scotland for a marriage between this princess and his son, whom he styled Prince of Wales. Unfortunately, the young lady died on her voyage to Scotland; and the crown was left to be disputed by a multitude of distant relations, of whom John Baliol and Robert Bruce, two barons of Norman descent, seemed to have the best right. Edward, being resolved to make Scotland his own at all hazards, interfered in this dispute, and, being appointed arbitrator among the

competitors, persuaded them to own, in the first place, an ill-defined claim put forward by himself of a right of paramountcy or superior sovereignty over Scotland. When this was done, he appointed Baliol to be his vassal-king, an honour which the unfortunate man was not long permitted to enjoy. Having driven Baliol to resistance, he invaded the country, overthrew his army at Dunbar (1296), and, stripping him of his sovereignty, assumed to himself the dominion of Scotland, as a right forfeited to him by the rebellion of his vassal. When he returned to England, he carried with him the regalia and public records of Scotland, as if to destroy all outward symbols and evidence of its independence.

49. The troops left in Scotland to keep the people in check were sometimes unduly insolent. Their conduct at length roused the indignation of a youth named William Wallace, the younger son of a gentleman of Renfrewshire. Wallace, having killed one or two individuals of the English garrisons, was obliged to skulk for his life amidst the wilds of his native country. There he met with companions in the same case with himself, and, by and by, at the head of these outlaws, he ventured to attack straggling parties of the English. The tradition of his country ascribes to him uncommon personal strength, perhaps more than he really possessed; but it is certain that he was a man of vigour, boldness, and dexterity, much beyond what is common, and at the same time animated by a most zealous desire of freeing his country from foreign domination.

50. Being successful in his first attempts, he gradually acquired greater confidence, and in time other followers flocked to his standard. In less than a year from his first rising, he was at the head of a large army, which the English forces then in Scotland were unable to meet in the field. A reinforcement was sent by Edward, under an officer named Cressingham; but Wallace gained a complete victory over this army at Stirling (September 11, 1297), destroying an immense number of the enemy. The English yoke was thus thrown off, and for a brief space William Wallace and his friend Andrew Murray were recognised as GOVERNORS OF SCOTLAND. Wallace was even able to make an inroad into England, and

take a signal revenge upon those provinces which chiefly supplied the troops for the subjugation of Scotland. He spared none who fell into his hands. Edward, fully aroused to the importance of this revolt, led a large army into Scotland, and, overthrowing Wallace at Falkirk (1298), re-established his power. After this period, Wallace continued to give incessant annoyance to the garrisons, but could not again redeem his country. In 1305, by the treachery of a friend named Sir John Menteith, he was given up to the English, and carried to London, where he was condemned as a traitor to Edward, and put to a cruel death, which he suffered with great magnanimity. By his countrymen his memory has ever since been held in the greatest veneration.

51. Some time after the death of Wallace, while Edward was engrossed with his French wars, ROBERT BRUCE, Earl of Carrick, grandson of him who had competed with Baliol, conceived the idea of putting himself at the head of the Scots, and endeavouring, by their means, at once to gain the crown, and to recover the independence of the kingdom. After a series of adventures, among which was the unpremeditated murder of a rival named Comyn, Bruce caused himself, in 1306, to be crowned at Scone. For some time after he had to skulk as a fugitive, being unable to maintain his ground against the English officers; but at length he became so formidable, that Edward found it necessary (1307) to lead a large army against him. The English monarch, worn out with fatigue and age, died on the coast of the Solway Firth, when just within sight of Scotland, leaving his sceptre to his son EDWARD THE SECOND, who proved to be a weak and foolish prince. The late king enjoined him with his dying breath to march into Scotland, carrying his bones at the head of the army, in order to strike terror into the people. But the young monarch, instead of obeying his father's orders, immediately returned to London, leaving his inferior officers to carry on the contest with Bruce.

52. After several years of constant skirmishing, during which the Scottish king was able to maintain his ground, Edward resolved to make one decisive effort to reduce Scotland to subjection. In the summer, 1314, he led an

army of 100,000 men into that country. Bruce drew up his troops, which were only 30,000 in number, at Bannockburn, near Stirling. Partly by steady valour, and partly by the use of stratagems, the Scots were victorious (June 24), and Edward fled ignominiously from the field. The Scottish king gained an immense booty, besides securing his crown and the independence of his country. Thus, at the time when Ireland was sinking under English rule, through its unfortunate internal dissensions, the national spirit of the Scots, united under one beloved leader, saved their comparatively poor country from that disaster.

Ireland under Edward II.—Robin Hood.

53. SOME of the Irish chieftains, hearing of the brilliant career of Robert Bruce, applied to him for assistance. He considered this a good opportunity of getting employment for his brother Edward, whose restless ambition seemed likely to disturb his own government. It is to be feared that this aspiring young man did not go to Ireland with the high feelings of a liberator, to assist a nation struggling for freedom, but rather with the view of imposing his own authority instead of that of the English monarch. He was joined by a large portion of the Irish; but others were opposed to him, while of the discontented English some ranked themselves on the one side and some on the other. After a career of remorseless cruelty, the faction of Bruce was defeated, and its leader slain. The effects of the invasion, however, were permanent. It not only added to the rancour of parties, but it desolated the country to an extent unknown before. The English themselves, reduced to famine, were obliged to plunder the miserable remains of provisions which were found in the hands of the natives. Reduced to this dismal state, many of the English settlers left the country, or mingled with the Irish, and followed their wild life; and a long period elapsed before the country was restored even to the state in which it had been before this last civil war. Many of the great English barons now began to find pleasure in the barbarous grandeur of the Irish

chiefs; they imitated them in their manners, assumed their laws, and gradually lost sight of their own origin. These were called degenerate English. Edward III., a later sovereign, issued an ordinance revoking all grants made by himself and his father, and for disqualifying all, except Englishmen holding property in England, from holding offices in Ireland. But this had only the effect of consolidating the enemies of the English crown, and giving rise to an invidious distinction of *English by birth*, and *English by blood*. Meanwhile, in 1295, the first Irish Parliament had been held, consisting of the English barons within the pale.

54. It was probably during the reign of Edward II. that there flourished a celebrated person usually named Robin Hood, whose aim it seems to have been to redress in some measure the grievances which the poor suffered at the hands of their superiors. He established himself, with a friend named Little John, and about a hundred other followers, in Sherwood Forest in Nottinghamshire, where he lived on the king's deer, and led a wild life, omitting no opportunity to attack travellers of rank, whom he easily succeeded in robbing. The wealth which he thus acquired he distributed amongst the poor, in order to compensate for their oppressions and sorrows. It is also told in praise of Robin, that he seldom hurt any man, and never attacked ladies. The weapons he used were chiefly bows and arrows, and he occasionally played at quarter-staff for his amusement. This bold outlaw is said to have died at Berkeley nunnery, through the treachery of a monk, whom he requested to open one of his veins for a sickness, and who allowed him to bleed to death.

55. The weakness of Edward II. was chiefly shewn in a fondness for favourites, into whose hands he committed the whole interests of his people. The first was a low Frenchman, named Piers Gaveston, who soon fell a victim to the indignation of the barons. The second, Hugh Spencer, misgoverned the country for several years, till at length the Queen and Prince of Wales raised an insurrection against the king, and caused him to be deposed, as quite unfit to reign. The Prince was then crowned as **A.D. 1327. EDWARD THE THIRD**, being as yet only about fourteen years

of age ; and, in the course of a few months, the degraded monarch was cruelly murdered in Berkeley Castle.

56. During the minority of the young king, the reins of government were held by his mother and the Earl of March. Under their administration, a peace was concluded with King Robert of Scotland, of which one of the conditions was a full acknowledgment of the independence of the Scottish monarchy, which had been a matter of dispute for some ages.

Edward III.

57. EDWARD III., who soon after assumed full power, was destined to make good the remark prevalent at this time, that the kings of England were alternately able and imbecile. He was a warlike and sagacious monarch, and inspired by all his grandfather's desire of conquest. In 1329, Robert Bruce died, and was succeeded by his infant son DAVID THE SECOND, to whom a young sister of the English king was married, in terms of the late treaty. Notwithstanding this connection, Edward aided a son of John Baliol in an attempt to gain the Scottish crown. Edward Baliol overthrew the Regent of Scotland, at Duplin, September 1332, and for two months reigned as King of Scots, while David and his wife took refuge in France. The usurper afterwards returned, and for many years the country was harassed by unceasing wars, in which the English took a leading part.

58. The independence of Scotland would probably have been lost on this occasion, if Edward III. had not turned his attention to France, to the sovereignty of which country he pretended a right through his mother. Being determined to make good his claim, he assumed the title of King of France (1340), and took for his motto 'Dieu et Mon Droit' (God and my right), which has ever since been borne by the kings of England. After several years of warfare, in which no remarkable event occurred, he led a splendid army into Normandy, accompanied by his youthful son Edward, usually called the *Black Prince* from the colour of his armour. At Cressy, he encountered a much

Aug. 26, 1346. larger French army, over which he gained a complete victory. Amongst many distinguished persons who

fell on the French side, was the King of Bohemia, who, though blind, insisted on going into battle, with his horse tied to the bridles of two brave knights. The crest of this monarch, consisting of three ostrich feathers and the motto 'Ich Dien' (I serve), was adopted by the Prince of Wales, and has ever since been borne by his successors. There is some reason to suppose that cannon were first used at the battle of Cressy. About this time, David, King of Scots, tempted by the absence of Edward and his best troops, invaded England; but the English queen met and overthrew his army at Neville's Cross, near Durham (October 17, 1346), and took the Scottish king prisoner. David remained a captive in England for eleven years.

59. Next year Edward took the city of Calais, after a long siege. Exasperated by the obstinacy of the inhabitants, he would only grant them life on the condition of having a certain number of them delivered up to his vengeance. At a public meeting of the citizens, six were found to offer themselves as a sacrifice for the rest. Barefooted, in their shirts, with halters about their necks, these men came into the presence of the incensed monarch, who was about to order them for instant execution, when his consort interceded, and with difficulty prevailed on him to acknowledge their singular merit by pardoning them. Calais remained for upwards of two centuries in possession of the English.

60. For some years the war was carried on languidly; but, in 1356, the Black Prince gained another great victory, at Poitiers; when John, King of France, and his son Philip, were taken prisoners and brought to England. Edward now kept in captivity the kings of both France and Scotland; yet this did not much favour his arms in those countries. A large army, which he conducted into Scotland in 1356, was only able to burn and pillage, not subdue. A similar invasion of France three years later, ended in the like manner. In 1360, he virtually abandoned his claim on France by making a treaty of peace, in which he agreed to set King John free. The wars of this monarch must, therefore, be considered as only brilliant; they were attended with no advantage, either to himself, whose ambition had prompted them, or to the people, who had given property and life to

support them. It was stipulated that the King of France should pay a large ransom. He went to his own country, to use his endeavours to induce his subjects to advance the money ; but they were either unable or unwilling to do so. He then returned to England, to give himself up once more as a prisoner. This honest act, and the generosity of the six citizens of Calais, shew that, amidst the barbarism of the age, there were some minds capable of a romantic degree of virtue.

61. England was at this time affected more than at any other by the fashions of chivalry. This was a military enthusiasm, which for some centuries pervaded all Christian Europe. It prompted, as one of its first principles, a heedless bravery in encountering all kinds of danger. Its votaries were expected to be particularly bold in behalf of the fair sex, insomuch that a young knight would sometimes challenge to mortal combat any one who denied his mistress to be the loveliest in the world. Tournaments were held, at which knights clad in complete armour would ride against each other at full speed with levelled lances, merely to try which had the greatest strength and skill ; and many were killed on these occasions. It was a system full of extravagance, and tending to bloodshed ; but, nevertheless, it maintained a courtesy towards females, and a romantic principle of honour, which we may be glad to admire, considering how rude was almost every other feature of the age.

62. At this and a later period, the clergy possessed vast wealth and influence, and were the only men of learning in the kingdom. High state offices were often intrusted to them. One named William of Wykeham rose from a humble origin to be Lord Chancellor and Bishop of Winchester. He was distinguished for piety, of the kind then prevalent, and for his love of learning, and taste for architecture ; all of which qualities were seen in his building the New College at Oxford, and another college or school at Winchester, as well as in his improvements upon Winchester Cathedral. One other college at Oxford and two at Cambridge were founded in this reign. But the learning which prevailed was neither useful nor elegant. There was great ignorance even amongst those who might have been expected to be the best informed.

For example, when Parliament had on one occasion to raise £50,000 for the king, it laid a tax of 22s. 6d. on each parish, from a supposition that there would be about 45,000 parishes in the kingdom. It was found that the real number was only about a fifth part of 45,000, and the parliament was then obliged to impose £5, 10s. on each parish.

Richard II.

63. At the death of Edward III. (his son, the Black Prince, having died the year before), he was succeeded by his grandson, RICHARD THE SECOND, A.D. 1377. then a boy of eleven years of age, and who proved to be of weak and profligate character. The Commons took advantage of the irregularity of his government to strengthen their privileges, which they had with difficulty sustained during the more powerful rule of his predecessor. Early in this reign they assumed the right, not only of taxing the country, but of seeing how the money was spent. Indignant at the severity of a tax imposed upon all grown-up persons, the peasantry of the eastern parts of England rose, in 1381, under a person of their own order, named Wat Tyler, and advanced, to the number of 60,000, to London, where they put to death the Chancellor and Primate, as evil counsellors of their sovereign. They demanded the abolition of bondage, the liberty of buying and selling in fairs and markets, a general pardon, and the reduction of the rent of land to an equal rate. The king came to confer with them at Smithfield, where, on some slight pretence, Walworth, mayor of London, stabbed Wat Tyler with a dagger—a weapon which has since figured in the armorial bearings of the city corporation. The peasants were dismayed, and submitted, and no fewer than fifteen hundred of them were hanged. Wat Tyler's insurrection certainly proceeded upon a glimmering sense of those equal rights of mankind which have since been generally acknowledged; and it is remarkable, that at the same time the doctrines of the reformer Wickliffe were first heard of. This learned ecclesiastic wrote against the power of the Pope, and some of the most important points of the Romish faith, and

also made a translation of the Bible into English. His writings are acknowledged to have been of material, though not immediate effect, in bringing about the reformation of religion.

Henry IV.—Robert II. and Robert III.—Henry V.

64. THE country was misgoverned by Richard II. till 1399, when his cousin Henry, Duke of Lancaster, whom he had deeply wronged, took advantage of his absence in Ireland, to raise a rebellion against him. The people supported the Duke with so large an army, that Richard, on returning to England, was obliged to surrender, and was



Richard II. conducted a prisoner to London by the Duke of Lancaster, afterwards Henry IV.

committed a prisoner to the Tower. The duke had at first disclaimed all pretensions to the crown, to which, failing even King Richard, he had no just right, his father, John of Gaunt,

having been the fifth son of Edward III., and descendants of an elder son being still in existence. But he was now tempted to seize the throne, and therefore caused himself to be proclaimed king, under the title of **HENRY THE FOURTH**. He resorted to Parliament to have his title confirmed, a step which tended to elevate the popular branch of the government. Three months after his deposition, King Richard died in Pontefract Castle, not without the suspicion of having been either attacked and slain, or, what is worse, starved to death, by order of King Henry. **A.D. 1399.**

65. In the meantime (1371), David II. of Scotland died, and with him terminated the line of Robert Bruce. He was succeeded by a nephew considerably older than himself, who had for many years been the chief defender of the kingdom. This was Robert Stewart, son of Marjory Bruce (daughter of Robert I.), by her husband, Walter, the Steward of Scotland. **ROBERT THE SECOND**, as this monarch was called, was the first of the house of Stuart. He was a man of virtuous character, and governed the country in a peaceful manner till his death in 1390, when he was succeeded by his eldest son John, who, fearing a name which had been borne by an unpopular king in both England and Scotland, assumed the title of **ROBERT THE THIRD**. This was likewise a good prince, but of too gentle a disposition to rule well in so barbarous an age. He had two sons, David and James: the former was starved to death by his uncle, the Duke of Albany; and the second, when on his way to France for his education, was seized by Henry IV. of England, and kept captive in that country for eighteen years. Robert III. then died of a broken heart (1406), and the kingdom fell into the hands of the Duke of Albany, at whose death, in 1419, it was governed by his son Duke Murdoch, a very imbecile personage. During the regency of Albany (1410), the University of St Andrews was founded by Bishop Wardlaw, being the earliest institution of the kind in Scotland.

66. Henry IV. proved a prudent prince, and, comparatively, a good ruler. He was successful in his wars against the Scots, and in suppressing various insurrections of his own subjects. The most formidable rebellion against him was one raised by Percy, Earl of Northumberland, in connection

with the Scots, and with Owen Glendower, a descendant of the Welsh princes. It terminated in an obstinate fight at Shrewsbury, where the earl's son, 'Hotspur,' was killed, and his party completely broken. Northumberland was afterwards killed in a second rebellious attempt; but Glendower kept up an irregular warfare in Wales for several years, and acquired the reputation of a Wallace amongst his countrymen. The good-fortune which attended the king throughout life suggested to him a superstitious maxim, that the success of an enterprise was a proof that it had received the favour of heaven. He entertained this notion till towards the end of his life, when, being troubled with a loathsome eruption in the face, which the people believed to be a punishment for his executing an archbishop, he saw reason to change his views. Amongst the troubles of King Henry at this time, was that of having a son entirely given up to bad company and dissolute conduct. The prince is said to have even joined a party of robbers who went upon the highway. One of his comrades being condemned for a felony, he was so enraged as to strike the judge upon the bench. The judge, Sir William Gascoigne, immediately ordered him to prison, and the prince, now sensible of his misconduct, submitted. The boldness of the judge, and the respect shewn by the prince for the laws, were much admired, and proved some gratification to the king.

67. To Henry IV. belongs the infamy of being the first English monarch who made life the forfeit of religious opinion. Since the death of Wycliffe in 1384, his doctrines had been preached by many, being generally favoured by the national dislike for the overgrown power, pride, and luxury of churchmen. King Henry, having been much indebted to the higher clergy for his throne, concurred in a parliamentary enactment (1400), designed to check the progress of what was called heresy. It decreed that all persons who preached doctrines different from those determined by the Church, or who should write books in the same strain, or even have such books in their possession, should, if refusing to abjure, be handed over to the sheriff, and burnt to death, in order that 'such punishment should strike in fear to the minds of others.' Under favour of this

horrid law, some Lollards, as these reformers were called (supposed from the German, *lollaerd*, a mumblor of prayers), were imprisoned, and a few burnt, during the reigns of Henry IV. and his successor. The Commons House, in 1410, petitioned the king that the statute against the Lollards might be repealed, and he answered, that he wished a severer one had been passed. The reality of these atrocious proceedings is strongly brought before our minds, by the fact that a dungeon in which the archbishop of Canterbury confined certain Lollards, still exists in his palace at Lambeth.

68. On the death of Henry IV., he was succeeded by his son, who was proclaimed under the title of HENRY THE FIFTH. The young king attained high popularity, on account of his impartial administration of justice, and his zeal to protect the poor from the oppressions of their superiors. It must be admitted, however, that the persecution of the Lollards in his reign greatly detracts from what might be said in its praise. A.D. 1413.

69. The king was determined to use every endeavour to gain the crown of France, which he considered his by right of birth. The dauphin, in derision, sent him a ton of tennis balls, as thinking him fitter for sport than war; but Henry soon convinced him of his error. Landing in Normandy with 30,000 men (August 1415), he gave battle to a much superior force of the French at Agincourt. On this occasion, he fought on foot, distinguished by a crown surmounting his helmet. Eighteen knights, who had bound themselves to kill him or take him prisoner, advanced upon him at once. One of them, by a stroke of his mace, brought the king to his knees; but he was rescued by his guards, and all the knights were slain. The French commander, the Duke of Alençon, fought his way to the royal standard, beat down the Duke of York, and clove the crown on the king's helmet, but was then slain by the English, although Henry generously held out his hand to save him. The most effective part of the English army was the band of archers, who showered arrows a cloth-yard long upon the French chivalry, and killed vast numbers. The English gained a complete victory, which was sullied by the king afterwards ordering a massacre of his prisoners, under the apprehension that an attempt was to be

made to rescue them. The war was carried on for some years longer, and Henry would have probably succeeded in making good his claim to the French crown, if he had not died prematurely of a dysentery (August 31, 1422), in the thirty-fourth year of his age, leaving the throne to an infant nine months old, who was proclaimed as HENRY THE SIXTH, King of France and England.

Henry VI.

70. UNDER Henry VI., whose power was for some time in the hands of his uncle, the Duke of Bedford, the English maintained their footing in France for several years, and at the battle of Verneuil, in 1424, rivalled the glory of Cressy and Poitiers. In that conflict, a body of Scotch, seven thousand strong, who had proved of material service to the French, were nearly cut off. In 1428, when France seemed completely sunk beneath the English rule, the interests of the native prince were suddenly revived by a rustic maiden, named Joan of Arc, who set herself forth as commissioned by heaven to save her country, and entering into the French army, was the cause of several signal reverses to the English. Through her enthusiastic exertions, and the trust everywhere reposed in her supernatural character, Charles VII. was crowned at Rheims, in 1430. Being soon after taken prisoner, the heroic maiden was, by the English, condemned for witchcraft, and burnt. Nevertheless, about the year 1453, the French monarch had retrieved the whole of his dominions from the English, except Calais.

71. Henry VI. was remarkable for the extreme weakness of his character. His cousin, Richard, Duke of York, descended from an elder son of Edward III., and therefore possessed of a superior title to the throne, conceived that Henry's imbecility afforded a good opportunity for asserting what he thought his birthright. Thus commenced the famous *Wars of the Roses*, as they were called, from the badges of the families of York and Lancaster, the former of which was a white, while the latter was a red rose. In 1455, the duke gained a decisive victory over the forces of Henry at St Alban's,

and the king was taken prisoner. In some succeeding engagements, the friends of Henry were victorious; and at length, in the battle of Wakefield (December 24, 1460), the forces of the Duke of York were signally defeated, and himself, with one of his sons, put to death. His pretensions were then taken up by his eldest son Edward, who, with the assistance of the Earl of Warwick, gained such advantages next year as enabled him to assume the crown. Before this was accomplished, many thousands had fallen on both sides. Henry, who cared little for the pomp of sovereignty, was confined in the Tower.

72. During the reign of Henry VI., the franchise of electing members of Parliament was first narrowed. By a statute in the eighth year of that reign, which complains that elections are often made by 'very great outrages, and excessive numbers of people,' it is enacted, that none shall vote in the election of members for the counties, but freeholders possessing estates valued at forty shillings of rent. To understand why such a measure should have been passed with calmness, and without any objection, it is necessary to reflect that a seat in Parliament was then by no means so eagerly sought, or considered so very honourable, as it is now. The members certainly sometimes obtained redress of grievances; but the ostensible purpose for which they were called, was to tax their constituents. Those who elected them were, moreover, obliged to support them with wages; and, in many cases, only those to whom the wages were an object, could be induced to attend. In general, it was more the interest of the king to get the Parliament to meet, than of the body to assemble; and constituencies often prayed that they might be excused the burden of sending representatives, sometimes alleging their poverty, sometimes their distance from the seat of government, and sometimes that they could prevail on no one to undertake the duty. When the last excuse was used, the sheriff was sometimes instructed to force some one to attend.

73. The members of the House of Peers were not less anxious to be rid of the burden of attending Parliament. The excuses recorded are manifold—bad health, poverty, and the necessity of attending to their own concerns: a bishop

on one occasion pleaded his extreme fatness. But Parliament had evidently begun to grow powerful and popular in the days of Henry VI., although, probably, the people did not take so deep an interest in elections as to oppose the limitation of the franchise, which the court, more far-sighted, probably proposed. Notwithstanding an act, which may appear at this time of a narrowing and aristocratical nature, the Parliaments of this reign continued to increase the popular power. The privileges of the Commons were enlarged, particularly in regard to freedom of speech and liberty from arrest. The latter was claimed both for themselves and their servants, as it still is by the Speaker of the House of Commons, although some time ago abolished as respects servants. The freedom from arrest came to be extended to cases of crime; but this likewise has been abolished.

James I.—James II.—James III. of Scotland.

74. SCOTLAND in the meantime had redeemed her king from his captivity in England. He began to reign **A.D. 1424.** under the name of JAMES THE FIRST, and soon after married Jane Beaufort, a daughter of the Duke of Somerset, with whom he had fallen in love while a prisoner in the Tower. During his confinement, he had received an excellent education, and he was now perhaps the most accomplished prince of his time. He wrote English poetry in a style superior to any of his contemporaries, and, besides being a composer of music, played skilfully on several instruments. His more solid qualities made him a distinguished legislator and reformer, and he exerted himself actively to turn the Scottish constitution to the model of that of England. The Parliament, which had existed since the thirteenth century, sat in one body, as the English Parliament originally had done. The king endeavoured to divide it into two bodies, the Lords and Commons, but without success. James also did much to reduce the Highlanders to an obedience under the Scottish government, and to break up the enormous power of the nobles. By these proceedings, he excited a deep hatred in the bosoms of some of his subjects, and a con-

spiracy was formed against his life. While he was residing at the Blackfriars' Monastery in Perth (1437), the conspirators, headed by one Robert Graham, entered his apartments by night. It is related that one of his queen's ladies, named Elizabeth Douglas, finding that a wooden bolt had been treacherously removed to give them admission, endeavoured to stop their progress by thrusting her arm into the vacant staples. The bone was broken in a moment, and the assailants rushed in. The king found a momentary refuge in a cellar below his apartment, but was discovered and cruelly slain. The murderers were soon afterwards seized, and put to death under circumstances of the greatest barbarity.

75. JAMES THE SECOND, the infant son of the late king, succeeded to the crown. His reign was chiefly distinguished by a harassing contention with the powerful house of Douglas, which at one time seemed likely to gain an ascendancy over monarchy itself. On one occasion, holding a personal conference with the Earl of Douglas in Stirling Castle, the king was so enraged at the insolence of his noble, that, drawing his dagger, he stabbed him to the heart. Afterwards engaging in hostilities against England, King James II. was killed by the accidental bursting of a cannon (1460), while engaged in besieging Roxburgh Castle.

76. His son, JAMES THE THIRD, was a boy when he succeeded to the throne. On growing up, he proved a man of weak character—fond of the fine arts, particularly of architecture, but much given to favourites, and at the same time obstinate and headstrong. His favourites were generally of low birth, which provoked his nobles so much, that they combined, and by force removed these men from the king's presence, hanging some of them without ceremony over a bridge. The king had several brothers, who proved a source of considerable trouble to him. There is little reason to doubt that one of these, named the Earl of Marr, was put privately to death at the command of the king. At length (1488), an extensive combination was formed against this wretched monarch, at the head of which was his own son, a youth of sixteen years of age. He met these opponents in battle at Sauchieburn, in Stirlingshire, and, seeing the day

going against him, turned and fled. Being thrown from his horse, and carried insensible into a neighbouring mill, he was there found by one of his enemies, and quietly pierced with a dagger. These circumstances give a vivid idea of the insecure condition of princes in that age, and of the inferior tone of morality by which themselves and their children were governed.

House of York—Edward IV.

77. EDWARD IV., who commenced his reign in the nineteenth year of his age, was accounted one of the handsomest men of his time. He was brave, **A.D. 1461.** active, and enterprising, but profligate in his private life, and extremely cruel. Remembering the slaughter of his father and brother, he was not disposed to extend any mercy to the Lancastrian party, either in battle, or after they had fallen into his power.

78. Henry VI. had still many friends in England, and the kings of France and Scotland were favourable to him. His consort, Margaret, was indefatigable in her efforts for his restoration. Having mustered an army of 60,000 men in Yorkshire, she met the forces of Edward at Towton (March 29, 1461), and experienced a complete overthrow. The queen with her husband retired into Scotland, where they were hospitably received. Afterwards leaving him there, she proceeded to France, and, obtaining an aid of 5000 men, returned to England; but her party was once more defeated at Hexham, and she and her son were for some time houseless wanderers. Meeting some robbers in a forest, they were plundered of what they had, and the queen escaped with difficulty from their hands. Afterwards, seeing a single robber approach her with a drawn sword in his hand, she gave herself up for lost, but on the contrary found in him a friend and protector, and was conducted by him to the coast, whence she escaped to Flanders. Henry spent a twelvemonth in concealment in Lancashire, but was at length taken, and thrown into the Tower, where he remained for several years.

79. In 1465, Edward married a widow, a beautiful woman named Elizabeth Woodville, the daughter of a private gentle-

man, and widow of Sir John Grey. He thus gave offence to the Earl of Warwick, who was engaged at the time in negotiating a marriage for him with the Princess of Savoy. A proper opportunity arriving, Warwick rose in rebellion against him, in conjunction with the king's brother, the Duke of Clarence. At first they were unsuccessful, and found it necessary to withdraw to France. There, by the mediation of the French king, Queen Margaret was reconciled to the Earl of Warwick, who had twice driven her from England, imprisoned her husband, and destroyed vast numbers of her former friends. On her behalf, he made a descent upon England, and quickly gathering a great army, saw himself in eleven days master of the kingdom, from which Edward was obliged to fly.

80. Henry VI. was now restored (1470), and King Edward attainted as a traitor and usurper. The Yorkists lost lands and rank, and the Lancastrians were replaced in their possessions. The Earl of Warwick, who seemed to have the power of filling and emptying thrones at his pleasure, obtained the popular nickname of the *King-maker*. But the good-fortune of the Lancastrian party lasted only a few months.

81. In March, 1471, Edward, assisted by the Duke of Burgundy, his brother-in-law, landed at Ravenspur in Yorkshire, and with a rapidly-increasing army, advanced to the capital, which opened its gates to him. Warwick met him with an inferior force at Barnet, near London, and experienced a complete defeat. The King-maker, his brother, and 10,000 men, were left dead on the field. Queen Margaret, then newly arrived from France, gathered another army, which was in like manner overthrown at Tewkesbury. On this occasion, 3000 men were slain; and what marks the barbarism of the time, twenty persons of distinction, of the Lancaster party, were immediately after dragged from a church, where they had taken refuge, and put to death. With this battle terminated the Wars of the Two Roses, which are said to have cost England 100,000 men. Soon after the fight, Henry VI. and his son, Prince Edward, were murdered in cold blood. Queen Margaret, who had fought battles for her family in almost every province in England, was ransomed by the King of France, in which country she spent the rest of her life in peace.

82. The only political event worthy of notice, **which** occurred during the remainder of Edward's reign, was the **dis-**graceful murder of the Duke of Clarence, brother of the king. Edward, having contracted a fear of his brother, caused him, on a mere pretext, to be arrested and tried as a traitor. Being condemned to death, the duke was taken to the Tower, and there privately murdered (1478). It is said that, being allowed to choose the manner of his death, he preferred being drowned in a butt of Malmsey wine.

83. The private life of the king was marked by the grossest vices. Particular notice has been taken of an unfortunate woman, named Jane Shore, whom he induced to leave her husband, a citizen of London, in order to live in splendid degradation at court. This woman possessed great beauty, and her mind was naturally formed for a life of virtue ; but she had been unable to resist the temptations of a royal lover. After his death, she suffered grievous persecutions, and was obliged to do penance in public, by walking barefooted through the streets of London. One who saw her many years afterwards, describes her as being then decrepit and shrivelled, and living in the most abject wretchedness.

84. During the reign of Edward IV., the plague frequently broke out in England, and carried off immense numbers of the people. It was particularly fatal in London, and in all other places where many houses were huddled closely together, with imperfect means of cleaning and ventilation. It was calculated that the disease, on one occasion in this reign, destroyed as many lives as the fifteen years' war. The plague did not cease to occur in England, or in any other European country, until considerable improvements had taken place in the habits of the people, especially in point of cleanliness.

85. It appears to have been in the reign of Edward IV., or perhaps at the conclusion of that of Henry VI., that printing was introduced into England. The earliest known book printed in England was a small chronicle, done with wooden types at Oxford in the year 1468. William Caxton, a citizen of London, was the first who printed with metal types. This art, which had been invented in Germany about twenty years before, and was destined to work a great change amongst European nations, was not much cultivated in

England till the reign of Henry VIII., when the Scriptures were first printed in English. The art was introduced into Scotland in 1508, and into Ireland about 1551.

Edward V.—Richard III.

86. EDWARD IV. died in April 1483, in the forty-second year of his age, leaving two sons and six daughters. His eldest son, a boy of eleven years of age, succeeded to the throne, under the title of EDWARD THE FIFTH. The young king was left under the guardianship of his mother's brother, the Earl of Rivers; but this lady's relations were odious to the older nobility, who regarded them as upstarts. Richard, Duke of Gloucester, brother of the late king, found no difficulty in causing himself to be appointed Protector of the Realm. He arrested Rivers; obtained possession of the young king's person, and also of the younger prince, the Duke of York; and then proceeded to devise means for obtaining the crown for himself. He first spread reports of the illegitimacy of the children of Edward IV. Then he caused several of the young king's friends, including the Earl of Rivers, to be beheaded. By the aid of the Duke of Buckingham, a highly-popular noble- **June 1483.** man, he succeeded in his main design, and was proclaimed king, under the title of RICHARD THE THIRD.

87. Though Richard's history has been written only by his enemies, there can be little doubt that he was, as they represent, a remorseless wretch, who scrupled at no means for gaining the objects of his ambition. He was hunch-backed, and otherwise of ungainly form; but these peculiarities would have been less remarked in this case, if he had not been a most accomplished hypocrite, and a merciless slayer of his own kindred. While his two nephews lived, he felt that his crown could not be safe. He therefore deliberately took measures for destroying these unfortunate children, whose persons he had for some time secured in the Tower. Sir Robert Brackenbury, the governor of that prison, was ordered to despatch them, but he answered that he knew not how to imbrue his hands in innocent blood. He was then

commanded to give up his charge for one night to Sir James Tyrrel. This wretch introduced three associates by night into the chamber where the young princes were sleeping. They smothered them with the bolster and pillows, and then buried their bodies at the bottom of the stair. Their bones were found there nearly two hundred years after, and, by order of Charles II., removed to Westminster Abbey. Tyrrel was executed in the next reign for another crime.

88. Richard was generally abhorred, notwithstanding some acts designed to obtain popularity. His friend, the Duke of Buckingham, being offended by the refusal of a favour, became his enemy, and raised a rebellion against him; but the attempt was premature, and Buckingham, being taken by the king, was immediately put to death. By his queen, who was the widow of Edward, Prince of Wales, Richard had one son, a youth of twelve years, who died in 1484. The queen not being likely to have any more children, Richard is believed to have caused her to be poisoned, in order that he might marry his own niece Elizabeth, whose title to the throne was looked on with favour by the people. This proposed match was regarded with horror by the princess, but it is said to have been favoured by her mother. It was frustrated by an event which soon after took place.

89. The pretensions of the house of Lancaster were now considered as resting in Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, who was descended, through a female line, from a person of doubtful legitimacy, a younger son of John of Gaunt, father of Henry IV. Upon this young nobleman, who had long been in exile, the affections of the English people began to be turned. With some aid from the King of France, **Aug. 1485.** he effected a landing at Milford Haven, in Wales, with about 2000 men. Richard immediately advanced to give him battle, and the two parties met at Bosworth in Leicestershire, Richard having about 12,000 men, and Richmond little more than half that number. In the midst of the conflict, the inequality was turned to the other side by Sir William Stanley joining Richmond with 7000 men. The king fought desperately, and made a furious charge at Richmond, killing one gentleman and beating down another, but was himself overpowered and slain, after which his party

made no longer any resistance. His crown, being found in the field, was placed on the head of Richmond, who was then proclaimed king, under the title of **HENRY THE SEVENTH**.

House of Tudor—Henry VII.

90. THE crown was soon after settled in Henry and his heirs by act of parliament; but he nevertheless still considered his title as imperfect, seeing that senior branches of the royal family were yet in existence. To strengthen his title, he married (January 1486) the Princess Elizabeth, eldest daughter of Edward IV., who, by birthright, was the real heir to the throne. It was said that, by this marriage, the houses of York and Lancaster were united.

91. Under Henry VII., the country revived from the evils of a long civil war, in the course of which the chief nobility had been broken down, and the industry and commerce of the land interrupted. It was remarkable, nevertheless, that, during the past period, England was upon the whole an improving country. The evils of war had fallen chiefly on those who made it; the government, however disturbed by various claimants of the throne, was mild and equitable—at least as compared with that of other countries; and the people thrived under a system in which their own consent, by the voice of the House of Commons, was necessary to the making of every new law, and the laying on of every tax. It was remarked at this time by Sir John Fortescue, an exiled English judge, that the comparatively despotic monarchy of France produced oppressions and grievances, from which the English subject was exempt. According to this lawyer, the sovereign of England held his power from and in behalf of the people, and not from any abstract right, as was pretended by other kings. This idea could probably never have arisen, but for the repeated breaks in the succession which have already been described. The usurpations, which had occasioned so much civil war and bloodshed, had transferred a great deal of power from the hands of the few to the many, and gradually paved the way for the freedom which now prevails.

92. The reign of Henry VII. was much disturbed by insurrections, in consequence of his imperfect title. Some friends of the house of York, rather than want a claimant on that side, set up a joiner's boy, named Lambert Simnel, to personate the son of the late Duke of Clarence; and an army of about 8000 men was led into the field to assert his pretensions to the crown. This force was defeated at Stoke, in Northamptonshire (June 1487), and Simnel being taken, was contemptuously appointed by the king to be one of his menial servants. A similar pretender, named Perkin Warbeck, but affecting to be Richard, Duke of York, the younger brother of Edward V., set up his claims (1493), and received great encouragement in Ireland, Flanders, and Portugal, by means of which he landed with a considerable force at Deal, but was defeated and obliged to re-embark. This youth, who is said to have been the son of a Jew, next found refuge in Scotland, where James IV., a young and gallant sovereign, was now reigning. James gave to Perkin in marriage a young lady connected with the royal family, and undertook an expedition into the north of England, in favour of his pretensions. This enterprise failed entirely in its object, and the Scottish king soon after deserted the cause of the impostor. Perkin subsequently raised a formidable insurrection in the southern counties of England; but, when about to encounter the royal forces, deserted his army, and took refuge in a monastery, where, according to the ideas of that age, his person was secure from every earthly power. Here he may be said to have been besieged by the royal army, who, though they could not touch him within the building, were yet able to starve him into a surrender. Perkin capitulated, and was brought to London, where a pretence was soon found for hanging him (November 23, 1499) at Tyburn.

93. Almost at the same time, Henry procured, by forms of law, the death of the Earl of Warwick, the real son of the late Duke of Clarence, a poor idiot boy, whom he had kept fifteen years in confinement, and whose title to the throne, being superior to his own, rendered him uneasy. Henry also, in the same manner, destroyed his own step-father, Sir William Stanley, one of the individuals who had chiefly aided him in obtaining the throne of England. It will be seen

with surprise, that it was not till a somewhat later period that the sovereigns of England began to have scruples about putting their relations to death.

94. Henry, though a cruel prince, as were most of the sovereigns of his age, was a sagacious and peaceful ruler. He paid great attention to all his affairs, and, in some of his acts, looked far beyond the present time. For example, by marrying his daughter Margaret to James IV. of Scotland, he provided for the possibility of A.D. 1503. the future union of the two crowns. By a law allowing men of property to break entails, he insured the reduction of the great lords, and the increase of the number of small proprietors. His constant policy was to depress the chief nobles, and to elevate the clergy, lawyers, and men of new families, as most likely to be dependent on him. The greatest fault of his character was his excessive love of money. To the gathering of wealth, much of his policy was directed. His favourite mode of punishment was by imposing fines, the profits of which he put into his own coffers. He had passed a law imposing fines for the keeping of too many liveried retainers. Once, when he was entertained by his favourite general, the Earl of Oxford, at the Castle of Henningham, he observed a great number of such persons drawn up in two lines to do him honour as he left the house. He affected to suppose that they were only menials; but the earl informed him that his fortune was too narrow to allow of his having so many servants—they were retainers who had come to do him service on this extraordinary occasion. 'By my faith,' said the king, 'I thank your lordship for your good cheer, but I must not allow my laws to be broken in my sight.' The mean-spirited monarch accordingly prosecuted the case, and obliged his over-kind host to pay 15,000 marks as a composition for his offence. By such acts, Henry prospered so much, that, at his death, the enormous sum of £1,800,000 was found in his repositories, being equal to about sixteen millions of modern money.

95. Henry VII. was reigning in England, when the King and Queen of Castile enabled Christopher Columbus to sail with a small expedition in quest of a new passage to the Indies (1492). Columbus performed two voyages, and dis-

covered many of the West India Islands. This roused a spirit for similar enterprises throughout Western Europe. In 1497, Sebastian Cabot, of Bristol, sailed from England, and was the first to discover and land upon the American Continent, which Columbus did not do till his third voyage in the ensuing year.

Poyning's Law in Ireland.

96. DURING the Wars of the Roses, the great Anglo-Irish families had generally supported the house of York ; but, as might be expected, where the chieftains were so powerful, and the laws so weak, their wars were conducted more on their own account than on that of any claimant of the English crown. After the accession of Henry, many of these restless chieftains were distinguished by their support of the impostor Lambert Simnel. To attach them more firmly to the English crown, the celebrated statute of Drogheda was passed in 1495. It received the designation of *Poyning's Law*, from the name of the Lord Deputy under whose administration it was passed. Its most memorable enactment prohibited any Parliament being held in Ireland, until the king should be certified by his lieutenant of the causes of calling the Parliament, and of the measures intended to be brought forward in it, and should have given his consent in council to the holding of the Parliament. The legislative body of Ireland was thus brought under the executive government of England, and the turbulent Anglo-Irish barons were prevented from uniting themselves into a body which might resist the English government. Poyning's law also enacted that all statutes 'lately' passed in England should be law in Ireland ; and in interpretation of this, the whole of the English statute law, prior to the eighteenth year of Henry VII., was transplanted to Ireland, while the later English statutes, down to the period of the Union, have only been law in Ireland in as far as they were confirmed by the Irish Parliament. By other enactments of Poyning's law, the warlike followers of the nobility were limited, and crimes were to be punished with the formalities of law, instead of the spirit of private revenge.

Henry VIII.

97. HENRY VII. died in April, 1509, in the fifty-third year of his age. When on his death-bed, a repentant feeling took possession of him, and he released all prisoners for debts under forty shillings throughout his dominions, paying their debts out of his own pocket. He also commanded his son to make restitution to all men whom he had wronged by his extortions ; but this order was little attended to.

98. His eldest surviving son and successor, HENRY THE EIGHTH, was now in his eighteenth year. Young, handsome, and supposed to be amiable, he enjoyed A.D. 1509. at first a high degree of popularity. The first two years of his reign were spent in almost uninterrupted festivities, by which much of his father's wealth was dissipated. He then engaged in a coalition of European powers against France ; the first instance of an English monarch involving himself in continental politics. In his hostilities against France, he did not experience much success.

99. His brother-in-law, James IV. of Scotland, having embraced the cause of France, made an irruption into England, during the absence of Henry. He was posted on Flodden Hill in Northumberland, when the Earl of Surrey approached with an army of English militia to give him battle. The Scottish king was governed rather by the romantic notions of chivalry than by the maxims of ordinary warfare. He declined to take an advantage which his position gave him over Surrey, and met the English army on an open field. The consequence was the destruction of himself and a large part of his army, including most of Sept. 9, 1513. his nobility. Henry VIII. next year made peace with France.

100. About this time, the confidence of the king began to be chiefly placed in Thomas Wolsey, Archbishop of York, a man of humble origin, being the son of a butcher in Ipswich, but who rose to be chancellor and prime minister of England, the Pope's legate, and a cardinal. The king, having squandered his father's wealth, was anxious to obtain money from his subjects ; and in this business he trusted entirely to Wolsey. Finding some difficulty in the House of Commons, the cardinal went there in person to remonstrate, but was told that

none could be allowed to speak in that house except such as were members. They granted him only the half of what he asked.



Shilling of Henry VIII.

He then endeavoured to enforce a *benevolence* throughout the country, using the king's prerogative as an authority; but by these means he only excited an universal spirit of discontent, which in several places broke out in rebellion. Wolsey, finding he had lost the king's favour in some degree by the ill success of his schemes, made an effort to regain it by presenting him with his splendid palace of York Place, in Westminster. We thus see, that, though the king appeared to enjoy almost despotic authority, he was still in some degree controlled by the popular spirit and the forms of the constitution.

101. About this time some changes of great importance to European society took place. Almost ever since the destruction of the Roman empire, the nations which arose out of it had remained in subjection to the papal see, which might be said to have inherited the universal sway of that government, but altered from an authority over the bodies of men to an empire over their minds. In the opinion of many, this authority of the Romish church had, in the course of time, become much abused, while the religion itself was corrupted by many superstitious observances. So long as men had continued to be the thoughtless warriors and unlettered peasants which they had been in the middle ages, it is not probable that they would ever have called in question either the authority of the Pope, or the purity of the Roman Catholic faith. But, with knowledge, and the rise of a commercial and manufacturing class, came a disposition to inquire into the authority of this great religious empire. We have seen that, so early as the reign of Richard II., Wycliffe had preached against the power and the practices of the church, and endeavoured to diffuse a knowledge of the Scriptures. In the two subsequent reigns, the Lollard preachings, which pointed to a religion founded directly on the Bible, greatly

affected the popular mind, until they were put down by persecution. These facts shew the tendency of the English mind in past ages to take a different course from that dictated by the Romish hierarchy. The art of printing, discovered about the middle of the fifteenth century, and which was now rendering literature accessible to most classes of the community, assisted in bringing about this revolution in European intellect. The minds of men, indeed, seem at this time as if awaking from a long sleep; and it might well have been a question with persons who had reflection, but no experience, whether the change was to turn to evil or to good.

102. When men's minds are in a state of preparation for any great change, a very small matter is required to set them in motion. At Wittenberg, in Germany, there was an Augustine monk, named Martin Luther, who became incensed at the Roman see, in consequence of some injury which he conceived to have been done to his order, by the Pope having granted the privilege of selling indulgences to the Dominican order of friars. Being a man of a bold and inquiring mind, he did not rest satisfied till he had convinced himself, and many others around him, that the indulgences were sinful, and that the Pope had no right to grant them. This happened about the year 1517. Controversy and persecution gradually extended the views of Luther, till he at length openly disavowed the authority of the Pope, and condemned some of the important peculiarities of the Catholic system of worship. In these proceedings, Luther was countenanced by some of the states in Germany, and his doctrines were speedily established in the northern countries of Europe.

The Reformation.

103. HENRY VIII., as the second son of his father, had been originally educated for the church, and still retained a taste for theological learning. He now distinguished himself by writing a book against the Lutheran doctrines; and the Pope was so much pleased with it as to grant him the title of *Defender of the Faith*. Henry was not destined, however, to continue long an adherent of the Roman pontiff.

He had, as soon as he came to the throne, married Catherine, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain, the widow of his deceased elder brother Arthur; and with this lady he had lived in contented union for eighteen years. The marriage, which otherwise would have been incestuous, was sanctioned by a dispensation from the Pope, and Catherine had borne to him a princess, the future Queen Mary. At length, becoming enamoured of a young lady of his court, named Anne Boleyn, Henry resolved, if possible, to rid himself of his wife. He attempted to obtain from the Pope a decree, declaring his marriage unlawful, and that the dispensation upon which it had proceeded was beyond the powers of the former Pope to grant. The Pontiff (Clement VII.) was much perplexed by this request of King Henry, because he could not accede to it without offending Charles V., Emperor of Germany, one of his best supporters, and the nephew of Queen Catherine, and at the same time humbling the professed powers of the Papacy, which were now trembling under the attacks of Luther.

104. Henry desired to employ the influence of his minister, Cardinal Wolsey, who had now reached a degree of opulence and pride never before attained by a subject of England. But Wolsey, with all his greatness, could not venture to urge a matter disagreeable to the Pope, who was more his master than King Henry. The process went on for several years, and still the king's passion for Anne Boleyn continued unabated. Wolsey at length fell under the king's displeasure for refusing to serve him in this object, was stripped of all his places of power and wealth, and expired at Leicester
Nov, 1530. Abbey, declaring that, if he had served his God as diligently as his king, he would not thus have been given over in his gray hairs. The uncontrollable desire of the king to possess Anne Boleyn, was destined to be the immediate cause of one of the most important changes that ever took place in England—no less than a total reformation of the national religion. In order to annul his union with Catherine, and enable him to marry Anne Boleyn, he found it necessary to shake off the authority of the Pope, and procure himself to be acknowledged in Parliament as the supreme head of the English church. His marriage with Anne took

place in 1533, and in the same year was born his celebrated daughter Elizabeth.

105. In 1536, Henry became as anxious to put away Queen Anne as he had ever been to rid himself of Queen Catherine. He had contracted a passion for Jane Seymour, a young lady of Queen Anne's bed-chamber, as Anne herself had been in that of Catherine. In order to gratify this new passion, he accused Anne of what appears to have been an imaginary frailty, and within a month from the time when she had been an honoured queen, she was beheaded (May 19) in the Tower. On the very next day he married Jane Seymour, who soon after died in giving birth to a son (afterwards Edward VI.). His daughters, Mary and Elizabeth, were declared illegitimate by act of Parliament, and therefore excluded from the succession.

106. Hitherto, though professing independence of Rome, Henry still maintained, and even enforced by severe and bloody laws, the most of its doctrines. He now took measures for altering this system of worship to something nearer the Lutheran model, and also for suppressing the numerous monasteries throughout the country. Although possessed of more despotic power and of far greater popularity than any former sovereign of England, he would hardly have ventured upon these sweeping measures against the clergy, had not their licentiousness and avarice already lowered them in the respect of the community. No fewer than six hundred and forty-five monasteries, two thousand three hundred and seventy-four chauntries and chapels, ninety colleges, and a hundred and ten hospitals, enjoying altogether a revenue of one hundred and sixty-one thousand pounds, were broken up by this powerful and unscrupulous monarch. He partly seized the revenues for his own use, and partly gave them away to the persons who most actively assisted him, and who seemed most able to protect his government from the effects of such a sweeping reform. By this act, the Reformation was completed in England. Yet for many years Henry vacillated A.D. 1537. so much in his opinions, and enforced these with such severe enactments, that many persons of both religions were burnt as heretics. It was in the southern and eastern parts of

England, where the commercial classes at this time chiefly resided, that the doctrines of the Reformation were most prevalent. In the western and northern parts of the country, Catholicism was still predominant; and in Ireland, which was remotest of all from the Continent, the Protestant faith made little or no impression.

107. The Earl of Kildare, head of the great family of the Geraldines, had held the viceroyalty of Ireland longer than it was generally permitted to remain in the hands of one man. He became popular among the native chiefs, assumed their manners, and induced many of them to attend his court, more, it was feared, on his own account than on that of the King of England. Having fallen under suspicion, he was directed to appear in London, leaving his government in the hands of a responsible person. For this purpose he chose his son, Lord Thomas Fitzgerald, whom he left in the possession of arms to avenge his fate, should he suffer from the vengeance of Henry. A false rumour of his being beheaded having reached Ireland, Lord Thomas flew to arms. He burst into the council, attended by several of his savage followers. Cromer, the chancellor, taking him by the hand, and endeavouring to dissuade him from his rash enterprise, was supposed by the Irish to be urging him on, and one who was a harper struck up a martial strain in his praise. The enthusiasm warmed, and spread into a general rising. After several battles, the insurrection was crushed, and Henry treated the country with the utmost severity. Lord Thomas was conveyed to London and executed. His five uncles, three of whom had discountenanced his insurrection, were invited to a banquet, and put to death. Henry sought to extinguish the name of the Geraldines; but a youthful member, who received protection from Cardinal Pole, revived it.

108. When Henry threw off the authority of the Pope, it was argued by the native Irish, that as Henry II. first acquired the country by the Pope's permission and directions, so, when a king of England ceased to acknowledge the Pope, he ceased to have any legitimate right to Ireland. George Browne, a follower of Thomas Cromwell, was appointed Primate of Dublin, for the purpose of furthering the

Reformation. He found his authority contemned by the clergy, who ridiculed him as a man of low birth. All he was able to accomplish was, to get the act of supremacy passed in a Parliament from which the proctors of the church were excluded ; a measure so merely formal, that the Master of the Rolls wrote to the king that his laws would not be obeyed twenty miles from the capital. The clergy of Archbishop Browne's own cathedral refused to remove the images and relics, and many incumbents of his diocese preferred the giving up of their charges to a denial of the Pope's authority. The O'Briens, O'Neils, and other native chieftains, rose in arms in defence of their religion ; but they had a vigorous arm to deal with, and Henry soon more completely subdued Ireland than it had ever been before. The people were obliged, nominally, to submit to his principles of church-government, while their hearts remained with the faith of their fathers. Henry now changed his title from 'Lord' to 'King' of Ireland, and conferred peerages on many of the chiefs who had submitted.

109. After the death of Jane Seymour, Henry married Anne of Cleves, a German princess, with whose person, however, he was not pleased ; and he therefore divorced her by an act of Parliament. He next married Catherine Howard, niece to the Duke of Norfolk, but had not been long united to her, when he discovered that she had committed a serious indiscretion before marriage. This was considered a sufficient reason for beheading the unfortunate queen, and attainting all her relations. Though Henry had thus murdered two wives, and divorced other two, and become, moreover, a monster in form as well as in his passions and mind, he succeeded in obtaining for his sixth wife (1543), Catherine Parr, widow of Lord Latimer, who, it is certain, only contrived to escape destruction by her extraordinary prudence. Almost all who ever served Henry VIII. as ministers, either to his authority or to his pleasures, were destroyed by him. Wolsey was either driven to suicide, or died of a broken heart ; Thomas Cromwell, who succeeded that minister, and chiefly aided the king in bringing about the Reformation—Sir Thomas More, lord chancellor, the most virtuous, most able, and

most consistent man of his time—the Earl of Surrey, who was one of the most accomplished knights of the age, and the first poet who wrote the English language with perfect taste—all suffered the same fate with Anne Boleyn and Catherine Howard.

110. When James IV. died at Flodden in 1513, the Scottish crown fell to his infant son JAMES THE FIFTH, who struggled through a turbulent minority, and was now a gay, and, upon the whole, an amiable prince. His uncle, Henry VIII., endeavoured to bring him into his views respecting religion; but James, who was much in the power of the Catholic clergy, appears to have wished to become the head of the Popish party in England, in the hope of succeeding, by their means, to the throne of that country. A war latterly broke out between the two monarchs, and, the Scottish army having refused to fight, from a dislike to the expedition, James died (December, 1542) of a broken heart, leaving an only child, Mary, who was not above a week old. Henry immediately conceived the idea of marrying his son Edward to this infant queen, by which he calculated that two hostile nations should be united under one sovereignty, and the Protestant Church in England be supported by a similar establishment in Scotland. This project, however, was resisted by the Scots, of whom very few were as yet inclined to the Protestant doctrines. Henry, enraged at their hesitation, sent a fleet and army, in 1544, to inflict vengeance upon them. The Scots endured with great patience the burning of their capital city, and many other devastations, but still refused the match. The government of Scotland was now chiefly in the hands of Cardinal Beaton, a man of bold and decisive intellect, who zealously applied himself to suppress the reforming preachers, and regarded the English match as likely to bring about the destruction of his religion.

111. Henry died, January 28, 1547, leaving the throne to his only son, a boy of ten years of age, who was immediately proclaimed king under the title of EDWARD THE SIXTH. It was a curious indication of the feeling of absolute power which Henry had acquired, that, by his will, he entailed the crown, failing his son, upon the family of his youngest sister

Mary, Duchess of Suffolk, and likewise a curious instance of the lingering privileges of Parliament, that he thought it necessary to procure an act to enable him to do so. In this settlement, reasons connected with religion, or arising from caprice, induced him to overlook the Princesses Mary and Elizabeth, his children by Catherine of Arragon and Anne Boleyn, and also the family of his eldest sister, the Dowager Queen of Scots.

112. In the reign of Henry VIII., classical literature first began to be extensively studied. Greek was now for the first time introduced into schools and universities. By the patronage of the king, Wolsey, and others, several new colleges were founded at Oxford and Cambridge. Improvements were made in medicine and surgery, and the College of Physicians was established. Cherries, apricots, pippins, and hops, were for the first time cultivated in England.

Edward VI. : 1547-1553.

113. THE young king possessed a good capacity and gentle dispositions. Owing to his youth, his maternal uncle, the Duke of Somerset, became supreme ruler, under the title of Protector. During this reign, the Church of England assumed its present form, and the Book of Common Prayer was composed nearly as it now exists. Somerset, being resolved to effect, if possible, the match between Edward VI. and Mary of Scotland, invaded that country in autumn 1547, and was met at Pinkie, near Musselburgh, by a large army under the governor, the Earl of Arran. Though the Scots were animated by bitter animosity against the English, against their religion, and against the object of their expedition, they did not fight with their usual resolution, but were defeated, and pursued with great slaughter. Finding them still obstinate in refusing to give up their queen, Somerset laid waste a great part of the country, and then retired. Previously to this period (1546), Cardinal Beaton had been assassinated by private enemies; but the Scots were encouraged to persevere by the court of France, to which they now sent the young queen for protection.

114. The domestic government of Somerset was conducted with considerable mildness, if we except a little rapacity towards the Catholics, exercised for his own advantage, and that of his supporters. He at length sank under the rising influence of Dudley, Duke of Northumberland, who caused him to be tried and executed. Northumberland, who was secretly a Roman Catholic, was not so mild or popular a ruler. Yet, throughout the whole reign of Edward VI., which was terminated by his death, on the 6th of July 1553, at the early age of sixteen, few were persecuted on account of religion, besides those who denied the fundamental doctrines of Christianity. The king was of a merciful disposition; and, though he would not allow his sister Mary the exercise of her own religion, he would beg his ministers to pardon those who were intended for destruction.

Lady Jane Grey—Queen Mary.

115. THE crown now belonged by birthright to Mary, the daughter of Henry VIII. by his first wife Catherine. But Henry had declared Mary and Elizabeth illegitimate, and settled the crown upon the family of his youngest sister, the Duchess of Suffolk. According to this arrangement, the title rested in the Duchess's daughter, Lady Jane Grey, a girl of sixteen, of the most gentle and amiable character, and singularly wise and learned for her age. In the hope of her succession, Northumberland had made her the wife of his son, Lord Guilford Dudley. On the 10th of A.D. 1553. July, four days after the death of Edward, the council proclaimed Lady Jane as queen, an honour which she by no means coveted. Meanwhile, Mary had been proclaimed by her friends at Norwich, and was soon joined by a considerable body. An army which was sent against her deserted to her standard, and, as she advanced to London, all opposition gave way before her. Lady Jane Grey renounced the ensigns of royalty, after having possessed them only nine days. She, her father, her husband, and many others of her friends, were immediately committed to the Tower.

116. Mary, who had reached her thirty-seventh year, was a

person of harsh and merciless character. Before she had reigned a month, she had brought the Duke of Northumberland and several of his associates to the block. Lady Jane Grey and her husband were, some months after, tried and condemned, as guilty of high treason. When this innocent young creature was told that she must prepare for eternity, she did not appear in the least moved. Her youth, beauty, and innocence, had made such an impression on the people, that it was deemed necessary she should suffer within the Tower. As she was going to the scaffold, she met the body of her husband, as it was carried back from the place where he had suffered. She beheld the spectacle, and submitted to her own death, with the most heroic resolution. A few days afterwards, her father, the Duke of Suffolk, was also beheaded.

117. Mary was zealously devoted to the Catholic religion. As far as she durst, she immediately restored it to its former supremacy in England, though professing to grant liberty of conscience to all. A match was formed between her and Don Philip, the eldest son of the Emperor Charles V., and heir of the kingdom of Spain and all its dependencies. As Philip was also a zealous Catholic, and likely to possess great power, the English people were alarmed at the alliance, as threatening the complete suppression of the Protestant religion in England; but the measure was effected by means of a liberal use of Spanish gold amongst the members of the legislature. The marriage took place in July 1554, after which the public acts of the state were in the name of Philip and Mary. Next year, Philip, by the resignation of his father, became King of Spain. He soon grew tired of the society of his morose consort, and withdrew to his own dominions.

118. In the latter part of 1554, the Catholic religion was completely restored, but not without considerable opposition, especially from the Protestant divines. To silence these men, and thereby extinguish heresy in her dominions, appeared to Mary as a religious duty. She therefore commenced that career of persecution which has rendered her name so infamous. Five out of fourteen Protestant bishops, including Cranmer, Latimer, and Ridley, were committed to the flames as heretics, and during the ensuing part of her reign, which was closed

by her death (November 17, 1558), nearly three hundred persons suffered in the same manner. These scenes did not take place without exciting much indignation in the minds of Englishmen in general, including even many Catholics; but the royal authority was at all times too great under this line of princes to allow of effectual resistance. Such a persecution, however, naturally fixed in the minds of the British Protestants a hereditary horror for the name of Catholic, which, in its turn, produced many retaliatory persecutions, equally to be lamented. In the latter part of her reign, Mary was drawn by her husband into a war with France, of which the only effect was the loss of Calais, the last of the French possessions of the kings of England. The natural sourness of Mary's temper was increased by this disgraceful event, as well as by her want of children, and she died in a state of great unhappiness.

Elizabeth.

119. A MORE auspicious scene opened for England in the accession of ELIZABETH, a princess of great native vigour of mind, and who had been much improved by adversity, having been kept in prison during the whole reign of her sister. From the peculiar circumstances of Elizabeth's birth, her right of succession was denied by all the Catholics at home and abroad. This party considered Mary, Queen of Scots, who was descended from the eldest sister of Henry VIII., and had been brought up in the Catholic faith at the court of France, as their legitimate sovereign. Elizabeth had no support in any quarter, except among her Protestant subjects. The Pope issued a bull, which, directly or indirectly, pronounced her a usurper, and gave permission to her subjects to remove her from the throne. The court of France professed to consider the Queen of Scots, who had recently been married to the Dauphin, as the Queen of England. Under these circumstances, Elizabeth found no chance of safety except in restoring and maintaining the Protestant religion in her own country, and in seeking to support it in all others where the people were favourable to it. The Scottish nation being now

engaged in a struggle with their regent, Mary of Guise, widow of James V., in behalf of Protestantism, Elizabeth gladly acceded to a proposal made by the nobles of that country, and sent a party of troops, by whose assistance the reformed religion was established (1560). In bringing about this change, the chief native leaders were James Stuart, a natural son of King James V., and John Knox, who had once been a friar, but was now a Protestant preacher. As a natural consequence of the obligation which the English queen had conferred upon the Scottish reformers, she acquired an influence over the country which was never altogether lost.

120. About the time when the Scottish Parliament was establishing the reformed religion, Mary of Guise breathed her last, leaving the country to be managed by the reforming nobles. Her daughter, the Queen of Scots, now eighteen years of age, and the most beautiful woman of her time, had in 1559 become the queen-consort of France; but, in consequence of the death of her husband, Francis II., she was next year left without any political interest in that country. She accordingly, in August 1561, returned to Scotland, and assumed the sovereignty of a country which was chiefly under the rule of fierce nobles, and where the people, from the difference of their religious faith, as well as their native barbarism, were little fitted to yield her the obedience of loyal subjects.

Reformation in Scotland: 1560.

121. THE change of religion in Scotland was of a more decisive kind than it had been in England. The English Reformation had been effected by sovereigns, who, while they wished to throw off the supremacy of the Pope and some of the Catholic rites, desired to give as little way as possible to popular principles. They, therefore, not only seized the supremacy of the church to themselves, but, by bishops and other dignitaries, made it an efficient instrument for supporting monarchical government. In Scotland, where the Reformation was effected by the nobles and the people, at a time when still bolder principles had sprung up, none of this machinery of power was retained; the clergy were placed on

a footing of perfect equality ; they were all of them engaged in parochial duties, and only a small part of the ancient ecclesiastical revenues was allowed to them. In imitation of the system established at Geneva, their general affairs, instead of being intrusted to the hands of bishops, were confided to courts formed by themselves. These courts, being partly formed by lay elders, kept up a sympathy and attachment among the community, which has never existed in so great a degree in the English church. What was of perhaps still greater importance, while a large part of the ancient revenues was absorbed by the nobles, a very considerable portion was devoted to the maintenance of parish schools, under the express control of the clergy. These at once formed regular nurseries of Protestant Christians, and disseminated the elements of learning more extensively over this small and remote country than they had ever been over any other part of the world.

Mary, Queen of Scots.

122. QUEEN MARY, having little power in her own country, was obliged to govern by means of her natural brother, James Stuart, whom she created Earl of Moray, and who was the leader of the Protestant interest in Scotland. Personally, however, she was intimately connected with the great Catholic powers of the continent, and became a party, in 1564, to a coalition formed by them for the suppression of Protestantism all over Europe. She had never yet resigned her pretensions to the English throne, but lived in the hope, that, when the Catholics succeeded in everywhere subduing the Protestants, she should attain that object. Elizabeth, who enjoyed only the support of the Protestant part of her subjects, with a friendly feeling among the Scots and other unimportant Protestant nations, had the greatest reason to dread the confederacy formed against her.

123. The queen of Scots possessed, with her great beauty, a quick and shrewd mind ; but she was also volatile, and easily carried away by her feelings. Under the influence of a blind passion, she selected, as a second husband, Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley, a young man of handsome person,

but a mere imbecile in character : his only real recommendation was his descent, being the son of the Earl of Lennox, by Margaret Douglas, daughter of Margaret of England, the widow of James IV. By this means Mary lost the affections of her brother and some other Protestant nobles, who rebelled against her. On this occasion her lively character was shewn by her taking the field in person, on horseback, with pistols at her saddle-bow. The rebel lords, unable to meet her in battle, fled to England, where they received protection from Elizabeth. Her government, nevertheless, was attended with great difficulties. Finding little useful service amongst her own countrymen, she was gradually led to intrust affairs of importance to an Italian, named David Rizzio, who had entered her service as a musician, but rose to the office of her French secretary.

124. The favour shewn by Mary to Signor Rizzio roused the jealousy of her weak husband. At the same time, the leading Protestants were alarmed at the approach of a Parliament, in which she threatened to effect the forfeiture and complete ruin of the refugee lords. A conspiracy was formed by Darnley and the Protestant leaders against the life of Rizzio. On the evening of the 9th of March, 1566, the secretary was sitting at supper with his mistress, in a small apartment in Holyrood Palace, when Darnley and his associates entered, tore the unfortunate Italian from the queen's side, and stabbed him to death in the next room with fifty-six wounds. Darnley's associates expected to make further use of him in resisting the measures of the queen ; but they were disappointed, in consequence of the extreme weakness of his character. The queen easily succeeded in detaching him from their cause ; and they were then left exposed to her resentment, while at the same time she saw it necessary to pardon the former rebels. Darnley paid dearly for the vacillation he shewed on this occasion.

125. On the 19th of June (1566), Mary gave birth to a prince, afterwards James VI. of Scotland and I. of Great Britain. For several months before and after, she seemed weighed down with grief on account of the folly of her husband. In December, a proposal was made that she should seek a divorce from him ; but she expressed great

dislike to such a measure, and appeared willing to wait till she should be relieved from the connection in the course of nature. It appears that, not long after, she became possessed by a passion, resembling infatuation, for the Earl of Bothwell, one of the boldest and most powerful of her nobles, but a man of coarse nature and profligate manners. In January (1567), her husband having been seized at Glasgow with small-pox, she went to him, took him again apparently into favour, and, bringing him to Edinburgh, placed him for his health in a suburban house not far from the palace. Here, on the night of the 9th February, he was murdered by emissaries of Bothwell, and the house blown up with gunpowder. A general belief took possession of the public mind, that the queen was accessary to the murder; and this gained force, when, after screening Bothwell from a public trial, she made him her husband, only two months after the death of Darnley.

126. The murder was in reality the result of a bond which Bothwell had entered into with some of those lords whom Darnley had formerly offended. The earl of Moray also knew of it, though he did not take an active part. It is considered likely that the queen was at least aware of the design, though no such guilt has ever been proved against her. When it was seen that Mary, on account of her supposed guilt and her marriage with Bothwell, had become odious to her subjects, the Protestant lords and other leaders deemed it an excellent opportunity of rising against her, although some of them had actually been concerned in the late murder. A combination was therefore formed, and a force of about 6000 men brought into the field. Mary and Bothwell, with a smaller party, took up a position on the crest of Carberry hill, near Musselburgh, where the associated lords came to a conference with her. In the course of a few hours, most of her men deserted to the other side, and she then surrendered herself into the hands of the lords, on a promise of being respectfully treated (June 1567). Bothwell at the same time left her, and they met no more. Having betaken himself to piracy, he was seized and thrown into prison in Denmark, where he died miserably ten years after.

127. The lords, instead of keeping faith with Queen Mary, imprisoned her in the Castle of Lochleven, and compelled her to sign a document, resigning her authority in favour of her infant son, who was then crowned king, under the name of JAMES THE SIXTH, the Earl of Moray being appointed regent.

128. In May 1568, Mary, having effected her escape from prison, was befriended by a party of her subjects, chiefly composed of the adherents of the Hamilton family. Pity now acted in her favour, and but for the extraordinary vigour of the Regent Moray, her restoration might have been at least temporarily effected. Raising a small body of troops, he met her party at Langside, in Renfrewshire, and gained a decisive victory. The queen, who had beheld the conflict from a distance, fled on horseback from the field, and did not stop till she had reached Dundrennan Abbey, on the Solway Firth. She immediately crossed the sea into England, and placed herself under the protection of Elizabeth, by whom she was detained thenceforward as a captive for upwards of eighteen years. By extending at the same time an effectual protection to the regents, Moray, Lennox, Mar, and Morton, by whom in succession Scotland was governed, the English queen fortified the Protestant interest in that quarter, and thus had one friend the more and one enemy the less in her contentions with the Catholic confederacy.

Government of Elizabeth.

129. It has already been seen that the liberties of the people were much favoured by the frequent interruptions in the succession to the crown. Whenever one branch of the Plantagenet family displaced another, the new king, feeling himself weak, endeavoured to strengthen his title by procuring a parliamentary enactment in support of it. It thus became established as a regular principle in the English government, that the people, who were represented in Parliament, had something to say in the appointment of their king. A considerable change, however, had taken place since the accession of Henry VII. The great power acquired by that king, through his worldly wisdom and the destruction of the

nobility during the civil wars, had been handed down through four successive princes, who inherited the crown by birthright, and did not require to cringe to the people for a confirmation of their title. The Parliaments, therefore, were now a great deal more under the control of the sovereign than they had formerly been. From an early period of his reign, Henry VIII. never permitted his Parliament to oppose his will in the least. To the various changes of religion under successive sovereigns, the Parliaments presented no obstacle. An idea was now beginning to arise, very much through the supremacy which the sovereigns had acquired over the church, that the right of the crown was one derived from God, and that the people had nothing to do with it, except to obey what it dictated to them. Of this notion, no one took so much advantage, or was at so much pains to impress it, as Elizabeth. No doubt, her arbitrary measures were generally of a popular nature, yet this does not excuse them in principle; and their ultimate mischief is seen in the attempts of future sovereigns to pursue worse ends upon the same means. Elizabeth's government consisted entirely of herself and her ministers, who were, from the beginning to the end of her reign, the very choice of the enlightened men of England. Her prime minister was the celebrated Lord Burleigh, by far the most sagacious man who ever acted as a minister in Britain; and all her emissaries to foreign courts were of one complexion—circumspect and penetrating men, devoted to their country, to their mistress, and to the Protestant religion.

130. On the accession of Elizabeth, the two celebrated acts of supremacy and conformity were passed, for the purpose of crushing the political influence of the Catholic religion; an end which they sufficiently accomplished. By the act of supremacy, all beneficed clergymen, and all holding offices under the crown, were compelled to take an oath abjuring the temporal and spiritual jurisdiction of any foreign prince or prelate, on pain of forfeiting their offices, while any one maintaining such supremacy was liable to heavy penalties. The other statute was of a less justifiable nature, and afterwards brought forth bitter fruits. It prohibited any one from following any clergyman who was not of the established religion, under pain of forfeiting his goods and chattels for

the first offence, of a year's imprisonment for the second, and of imprisonment during life for the third ; while it imposed a fine of a shilling on any one absenting himself from the established church on Sundays and holidays. By means of a court of ecclesiastical commission, which the queen erected, these laws, and others of a more trifling and vexatious nature, were enforced with great severity. It may afford some idea of the barbarity of the age, and of the terror in which the Church of Rome was now held, that, during the reign of Elizabeth, one hundred and eighty persons suffered death by the laws affecting Catholic priests and converts.

War in the Netherlands.

131. FOR more than a century after the Reformation, religion was the real or apparent motive of the most remarkable transactions in European history. It is scarcely necessary to point out that this sentiment, though in general the purest by which human beings can be actuated, is, like all the other higher sentiments of our nature, when offended or shocked, capable of rousing the inferior sentiments into great activity. In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, European society was comparatively unenlightened and barbarous : we therefore find that variances of opinion respecting religion were then productive of far fiercer feelings than they are in our more humane age. The Protestant heresy, as it was termed by the Catholics, was also a novelty, the remote effects of which no man could foretell ; it was mingled with political questions, and by some princes was supposed to forebode a general revolt against monarchical authority. We are not, therefore, to wonder that great cruelties were committed, either by the Catholics in seeking to support the Church of Rome, or by the Protestants in endeavouring to insure themselves against a renewal of severities inflicted by the opposite party. Nor is it necessary, in the present age, that the adherents of either faith should retain any feeling of displeasure against the other, on account of barbarities which took their rise in the ignorance and rudeness of a former period, and of which the enlightened of both parties have long since disapproved.

132. In the Netherlands, which formed part of the dominions of Philip II. of Spain, the reformed faith had made considerable advances. Philip, like other Catholic princes, entertained the idea that this new creed, besides being condemnable as a heresy and an offence against the Deity, tended to make men independent of their rulers. Finding the people obstinate in their professions, he commenced a war with the Netherlands, for the purpose of enforcing his authority over their consciences. This war lasted about twenty years; for the Netherlands, though a nation of no great strength, fought like desperate men, and endured the most dreadful hardships rather than submit. The chief leader in this war of liberty was William, Prince of Orange, one of the purest and most courageous patriots that ever breathed. Elizabeth could not help wishing well to the Netherlands, though for a long time her dread of Spain, then one of the greatest powers in Europe, prevented her from openly assisting them. At the same time, about two millions of the people of France were Protestants, or, as they were then called, Huguenots, who acted also for the general Protestant cause with as much energy as the great strength of the French government would permit. It was the general sentiment of the Catholics of that age, that heresy was an evil, the extirpation of which could not be too dearly purchased. Under this feeling, Charles IX. of France caused the massacre of from ten to twenty thousand Protestants at Paris, on St Bartholomew's day (August 24, 1572). Many other cruelties of the same nature were perpetrated by Catholics upon Protestants. Elizabeth at length, in 1578, extended an open protection to the Netherlands, excusing herself to Philip by stating her fear that they would otherwise throw themselves into the arms of France. The northern provinces were thus enabled to assert their independence, and to form the state which has since been called Holland.

Death of Mary of Scotland.

133. THE severities and threats of the Catholics naturally provoked some retaliation on the part of the Protestants.

Elizabeth, as already mentioned, hanged many men for no other crime than that they were Romish priests; being provoked to do so, by the plots which were perpetually forming by men of this class for assassinating her. Her principal victim was the unfortunate Queen of Scots, who had been kept in captivity for nearly nineteen years. The liberation of this princess was generally a part of the schemes of all the enthusiasts who plotted the murder of Elizabeth. A law was at length passed, intended for the destruction of Mary, by which it was declared, that any person, by or *for* whom any plot should be made, against the life of the Queen of England, should be guilty of treason. In 1586, a gentleman named Babington, with some others, contrived a plan for assassinating Elizabeth, and placing Queen Mary on the throne. The plot was discovered by spies—a class of persons of whom great numbers were employed in this reign. The conspirators were seized and executed; and out of the confessions extracted from them by torture, was woven a tissue of pretended evidence, for proving that the Queen of Scots was concerned in the conspiracy. In reality, Mary might have some vague knowledge that such a plot was in agitation; but, as a prisoner detained in defiance of all law, she was neither called upon to divulge any secret involving the life of Elizabeth, nor was it in her power to prevent any man from entering upon an enterprise in her own favour.

134. Thirty-six commissioners, appointed by Elizabeth, arrived at Fotheringay Castle, in Northamptonshire, where Queen Mary was confined, in order to subject one independent princess to a trial for high treason against another; a proceeding quite unparalleled in history, and which, indeed, was only giving to murder the form of law. Mary protested both against the law upon which she was arraigned, and against the competency of the court, but was at length induced to appear upon trial, lest it should have been supposed that she refused from a consciousness of guilt. ‘It is impossible,’ says an English historian, ‘to read, without admiration, in the minute records of the trial, the self-possessed, prompt, clear, and sagacious replies and remarks, by which this forlorn woman defended herself against the most expert lawyers and politicians of the age, who, instead

of examining her as judges, pressed her with the unscrupulous ingenuity of enemies.' Upon a mere shadow of evidence, which any lawyer would now pronounce to be not only imperfect, but illegal, she was condemned to death (October 25, 1586). Elizabeth had not only public reasons for taking the life of this queen, but was also animated by a deadly hatred against her, on account of the personal superiority of Mary; yet she pretended to all around her that she could never be induced to grant the warrant for execution, unless it were seen to be imperatively necessary for the welfare of her country.

135. Accordingly, the kingdom was now filled with rumours of plots, treasons, and insurrections; and the queen seemed to be continually kept in alarm with fictitious dangers. She assumed the appearance of great terror and perplexity; sat much alone, and muttered to herself half sentences, importing the difficulty and distress to which she was reduced. In this situation, she one day called her secretary, Davidson, whom she ordered to draw out secretly the warrant for Mary's execution, informing him that she intended to keep it beside her, in case any attempt should be made for the delivery of that princess. She signed the warrant, and then commanded it to be carried to the chancellor, to have the seal affixed to it. Next morning, however, she sent two gentlemen successively to desire that Davidson would not go to the chancellor until she should see him; and, upon being informed that the warrant had been already sealed, she seemed displeased at his precipitation. But Davidson, who probably believed that his mistress wished to have the sentence executed, laid the affair before the council, who unanimously resolved that the warrant should be immediately carried into effect, and promised to justify him to the queen. Accordingly, the fatal instrument was delivered to Beale, the clerk of the council, who summoned the noblemen to whom it was directed, namely, the Earls of Shrewsbury, Kent, Derby, and Cumberland, all of whom set out immediately to Fotheringay Castle, accompanied by two executioners, to despatch their bloody commission.

136. On the 7th of February 1587, Mary was informed of the arrival of these functionaries, who ordered her to prepare

for death by eight o'clock the following day. Early on the fatal morning, she dressed herself in a rich habit of silk and velvet, the only one which she had reserved for this solemn occasion. Thomas Andrew, the under-sheriff of the county, then entering the room, informed her that the hour was come, and that he must attend her to the place of execution. She replied that she was ready; and, bidding her servants farewell, she advanced, supported by two of her guards, and followed the sheriff with a serene aspect, having a long veil of linen on her head, and in her hand a crucifix of ivory. She then passed into another hall, the noblemen and the sheriff going before, and Melville, her master of the household, bearing up her train. In this hall a scaffold was erected, covered with black. As soon as Mary was seated, Beale began to read the warrant for her execution; and Fletcher, Dean of Peterborough, standing without the rails, repeated a long exhortation, which she desired him to forbear, as she was firmly resolved to die in the Catholic religion. The room was crowded with spectators, who beheld her with pity and distress; while her beauty, though dimmed by age and affliction, gleamed through her sufferings, and was still remarkable in this fatal moment. The two executioners kneeling and asking her pardon, she said she forgave them, and all the authors of her death, as freely as she hoped for forgiveness from her Maker, after which she once more made a solemn protestation of her innocence. Her eyes were then covered with a linen handkerchief, and she laid herself down upon the block without any fear or trepidation. After she had recited a psalm, and repeated a pious ejaculation, her head was severed from her body, at two strokes by the executioner.

137. Thus died Mary, in the forty-fifth year of her age, after a life full of troubles and misfortunes. Her son was in the meantime grown to manhood, and had assumed the supreme direction of affairs in Scotland, in which, however, he was much controlled by the clergy, who, though they had less apparent power than their brethren in England, were in reality possessed of an influence over the people which set the sovereign at defiance. James made many attempts to assert a control over the church like that enjoyed by the English

monarch, and also to introduce an Episcopal hierarchy, but never could attain more than a mere shadow of his object. He had been educated by the regents in the Protestant faith, and was now regarded as heir-presumptive to the English crown.

Spanish Armada.

138. THE year 1588 was remarkable in England for the famous enterprise called the Spanish Armada. It was resolved by the King of Spain to hurl a decisive blow at the Protestant interest, by invading England with an immense fleet, the preparation of which had employed all the resources of his kingdom. The ports of Spain, Portugal, and other maritime dominions belonging to him, had long resounded with the noise of his preparations, and the most eminent Catholic soldiers from all parts of Europe flocked to take a share in the expedition.

139. The Marquis of Santa-Croce, a sea-officer of great reputation and experience, was destined to command the fleet, which consisted of a hundred and thirty vessels, of greater size than any that had been hitherto seen in Europe. The Duke of Parma was to conduct the land-forces, twenty thousand of whom were on board the ships of war, and thirty-four thousand more were assembled in the Netherlands, ready to be transported into England; so that, as no doubt was entertained of success, the fleet was ostentatiously styled the Invincible Armada.

140. Nothing could exceed the terror and consternation which seized all ranks of people in England upon the news of this terrible armada being under sail to invade them. A squadron of not more than thirty ships of the line, and those very small in comparison, was all that Elizabeth had to oppose it by sea; and it was considered impossible to make any effectual resistance by land, as the Spanish army was composed of men well disciplined and long inured to danger. But, although the English fleet was much inferior in number and size of shipping to that of the enemy, it was much more manageable, while the dexterity and courage of the mariners were greatly superior. Lord Howard of Effingham, a man of

great valour and capacity, took upon him, as lord high admiral, the command of the navy. Drake, Hawkins, and Frobisher, the most renowned seamen in Europe, served under him; while another squadron, consisting of forty vessels, English and Flemish, commanded by Lord Seymour, lay off Dunkirk, in order to intercept the Duke of Parma. Such was the preparation made by the English; while all the Protestant powers of Europe regarded this enterprise as the critical event which was to decide for ever the fate of their religion.

141. While the Spanish armada was preparing to sail, the admiral, Santa-Croce, died, as likewise the vice-admiral, Paliano; and the command of the expedition was given to the Duke of Medina Sidonia, a person utterly inexperienced in sea affairs; these unexpected circumstances served, in some measure, to frustrate the design. Some other accidents also contributed to its failure. The day after leaving the port of Lisbon, the armada met with a violent tempest, which sank some of the smallest of the ships, and obliged the rest to put back into Corunna. After some time spent in refitting, the Spaniards again put to sea, where they took a fisherman, who gave them intelligence that the English fleet, hearing of the dispersion of the armada in a storm, had returned to Plymouth, and that most of the mariners were discharged. From this false intelligence, the Spanish admiral, instead of going to the coast of Flanders, to take in the troops stationed there, resolved to sail directly to Plymouth, and destroy the shipping laid up in the harbour. But Effingham was very well prepared to receive him, and had just got out of port, when he saw the Spanish armada coming full sail towards him, disposed in the form of a half-moon, and stretching seven miles from the one extremity to the other. The English admiral, seconded by Drake, Hawkins, and Frobisher, attacked the Spaniards at a distance, pouring in their broadsides with admirable dexterity. **July 19, 1588.** They did not choose to engage the enemy more closely, because they were greatly inferior in number of ships and guns, as well as in weight of metal; nor could they pretend to board such lofty vessels without manifest disadvantage. In this action, however, two Spanish galleons were disabled and taken.

142. As the armada advanced up the Channel, the English still followed and infested its rear; and as their ships continually increased from different ports, they soon found themselves in a capacity to attack the Spanish fleet more nearly, and, accordingly, fell upon them while they were taking shelter in the port of Calais. To increase their confusion, Howard selected eight of his smaller vessels, which, after filling them with combustible materials, he sent one after another, as if they had been fire-ships, into the midst of the enemy. The Spaniards, taking them for what they seemed to be, immediately bore off in great disorder; while the English, profiting by their panic, captured or destroyed about twelve ships. The Duke of Medina Sidonia, being thus driven to the coast of Zealand, held a council of war, in which it was resolved, that, as their ammunition began to fail, as their fleet had received great damage, and as the Duke of Parma had refused to venture his army under their protection, they should return to Spain by sailing round the Orkneys, as the winds were contrary to their passage directly back. Accordingly, they proceeded northward, and were followed by the English fleet as far as Flamborough-head, where they were terribly shattered by a storm. Seventeen of the ships, having 5000 men on board, were afterwards cast away on the Western Isles and the coast of Ireland. Of the whole armada, fifty-three ships only returned to Spain, and these in a wretched condition. The seamen, as well as the soldiers who remained, were so overcome with hardships and fatigue, and so dispirited by their discomfiture, that they filled all Spain with accounts of the desperate valour of the English, and of the tempestuous violence of that ocean by which England was surrounded.

Ireland under Elizabeth.

143. IN Ireland, which was kept much apart from the religious disputes of Europe, the measures of Henry VIII. were disliked more on account of his interfering with the authority of the Pope, than from any change he made in the forms of worship. On the accession of Edward, the

proposal of a new liturgy, provoked greater jealousy, but this soon passed over, as the liturgy, though introduced, was not rigorously enforced. Under the Catholic Mary, the English government became once more in harmony with the views of the Irish people regarding religion, and the Parliament was of course very ready to repeal all the acts which it had passed in the two preceding reigns.

144. With the death of Mary this harmony came to an end, for Elizabeth immediately took measures for abolishing the Romish church in Ireland. By means of a parliament, carefully picked from friends of the crown, the authority of the Pope was suppressed, the prayer-book introduced, and the queen's supremacy established. These acts were attended with great clamour; but the country for a time appeared tranquil. The first disturbance was given by John O'Neill, a man of turbulent and dissipated habits, who was removed, in 1567, by assassination. An invasion from Spain soon afterwards produced a favourable opportunity for a rising; but the country remained comparatively quiet. Under Sir John Perrot, a sagacious and tolerably honest deputy, who acceded to the administration in 1584, there appeared some promise of a period of tranquillity. He proposed that the English laws should be extended over the country, that fortresses should be garrisoned, to keep down disturbances, and bridges and roads formed, in order that the resources of the country might be turned to account. This generous policy did not suit the views of the English statesmen. In those days, men were much disposed to the erroneous notion that, when one nation was allowed to thrive, another must necessarily suffer. It was conceived that, to grant money to achieve Perrot's designs, would be only to pension an enemy, and enable it to prove the more dangerous to England. It was thought the best plan to allow Ireland to weaken itself by internal dissension. The consequence was the protracted civil war known as *Tyrone's Rebellion*.

145. Hugh O'Neill, Earl of Tyrone, a man who must have possessed extremely persuasive and fascinating manners, a heart of deep guile, and an irregular and ill-aimed ambition, had been artful enough to obtain the favour of Elizabeth, as a great friend of the English interest, and an

enemy of the native Irish. He even recommended the extinction of his own family name, while he was strengthening its influence; and at the time when he was forming extensive combinations among the native chiefs, he visited the queen in London, and acceded to many plans for preserving the peace of Ireland, which, on his return, he had the art to evade, almost without suspicion. He even fought a battle with his allies, and received a wound as the proof of his integrity. When he could no longer deceive, a general gathering took place throughout the country (1595), and the war was again between Ireland and England as separate nations.

146. The English officers were at first unsuccessful, and met with some serious defeats. In 1598, Tyrone gained so great a victory, that the whole province of Munster declared for him. He then invited the Spaniards to make a descent on Ireland, and join him. The queen sent over her favourite, the Earl of Essex, with 20,000 men; but he did not proceed with vigour, and soon after found it necessary to return to England to justify himself. Next year, Tyrone broke the truce he had formed with Essex, overran the whole country, and acted as sovereign of Ireland. If Spain had at this time given him the support he asked, Ireland might have been dissevered from the English crown.

147. Elizabeth now selected, as her deputy for Ireland, Blount, Lord Mountjoy, who was in every respect better fitted than Essex to conduct such a warfare. As a preliminary step, this sagacious officer introduced jealousy and disunion among the Irish chiefs. The very celerity of his movements tended to dispirit the insurgents. In 1601, six thousand Spaniards landed in Kinsale harbour, for the purpose of supporting the Irish. Mountjoy immediately invested the place, and prevented them from acting. Tyrone marched from the south of Ireland to their relief, and was met and overthrown by a much inferior English force, after which Kinsale was surrendered. About the time when Elizabeth died (1603), Tyrone submitted, and Ireland was once more reduced under the authority of the English crown. It appears that, during the last ten years of the queen, Ireland

was the cause of enormous expense to England. The revenue of the country was not above £120,000; but, during these ten years, the average expense was £340,000. As Elizabeth's entire revenue was much below half a million, we may conjecture that her expense on account of Ireland was considerably more than all the other expenses of her government put together. All this might have been saved, if Sir John Perrot's suggestions had been adopted; and the prosperity of both countries would have at the same time been greater, and much bloodshed prevented.

Conclusion of the Reign of Elizabeth.

148. It is remarkable, that, while Elizabeth increased in power and resources, she became more noted for feminine weaknesses. In her early years she had shewn a stoicism, and superiority to natural affections, not usually observed in women. But in her old age, she became volatile and susceptible to an extraordinary degree; so that the hand which she had withheld, in her younger days, from the noblest princes of Europe, seemed likely to be bestowed, in her old age, upon some mere court minion. Her favourite in middle life was Robert, Earl of Leicester, a profligate and a trifler. In her latter days she listened to the addresses of the Earl of Essex, a young man of greater courage and better principle, but also headstrong and weak. Essex, who had acquired popularity by several brilliant military enterprises, began at length to assume an insolent superiority over the queen, who was, on one occasion, so much provoked by his rudeness as to give him a hearty box on the ear. Notwithstanding all his caprices and insults, the queen still doatingly forgave him, until he at length attempted to raise an insurrection against her in the streets of London, when he was seized, condemned, and, after much hesitation, executed (February 25, 1601).

149. It is always alleged that the life of Essex would have been saved, if the queen had received from him a ring which she had given him in his happier years as a pledge of her affection, and which she told him would at any time

recall her tenderness towards him, however deeply he might have offended her. It is said that Essex gave this ring to the Countess of Nottingham, to be carried to Elizabeth, but that the countess was prevailed upon by her husband, who was an enemy of Essex, to keep it back. Elizabeth, in at last ordering the execution of Essex, had acted upon her usual principle of sacrificing her feelings to what was necessary for the public cause; but in this effort, made in the sixty-eighth year of her age, she had miscalculated the real strength of her nature. She was seen from that time to decline gradually in health and spirits. Her distress was increased to a great degree by a death-bed confession of the Countess of Nottingham respecting the ring. The dying woman asked the queen's forgiveness for her treachery, but Elizabeth turned from her, saying, that God might forgive her, but she never could.

150. About the close of 1601, the queen fell into a deep hypochondria or melancholy. She could scarcely be induced to have herself dressed, and refused all food but bread and succory pottage. She would often walk agitatedly in her chamber, stamp on the floor, and pierce the arras with a rusty sword which she usually kept near her. She would frown much upon her ladies, and chide them fiercely for the smallest faults. At length she became so much absorbed by her sorrow as to refuse sustenance, and sat for days and nights on the floor, supported by a few cushions brought to her by her attendants. On the 24th of March 1603, she expired, after a reign of nearly forty-five years, during which England advanced from the condition of a second-rate to that of a first-rate power, and the Protestant religion was established on a basis from which it could never afterwards be shaken.

151. The reign of Elizabeth saw the commencement of the naval glory of England. Down to the reign of Henry VII., there was no such thing as a navy belonging to the public, and the military genius of the people was devoted exclusively to enterprises by land. The rise, however, of a commercial spirit in Europe, which in 1492 had caused the discovery of America, and was again acted upon by the scope for adventure which that discovery opened up, had

latterly caused great attention to be paid to naval affairs in England. Englishmen of all ranks supported and entered into enterprises for discovering unknown territories; and under Drake, Cavendish, Raleigh, and Frobisher, various expeditions of less or more magnitude were sent out. The colonies of North America were now commenced. Amongst the exertions of private merchants, our attention is chiefly attracted by the commencement of the northern whale-fishery, the cod-fishery of Newfoundland, and the less laudable slave-trade in Africa. When hostilities with Spain became more open, the English commanders made many successful attacks upon her colonies in the West Indies, and also upon the fleets of merchant vessels which were employed to carry home the gold, and other almost equally valuable products of the New World, to the Spanish harbours. These attacks were now made in a more systematic manner, and with more effect, as a revenge for the affair of the Armada. It may almost be said that the dominion of Britain over the seas was perfected in one reign; a power which has been of such advantage to the country, both in protecting its commerce, and keeping it secure from foreign invasion, that its origin would have conferred everlasting lustre on this period of our history, even although it had not been characterised by any other glorious event.

152. The chief articles exported from England to the continent were wool, cloth, lead, and tin: formerly, these had been sent in vessels belonging to the Hanse Towns—certain ports of the north of Europe, possessing great privileges; but now English vessels were substituted for this trade. Birmingham and Sheffield were already thriving seats of the hardware manufacture, and Manchester was becoming distinguished for making cottons, rugs, and friezes. Stocking-weaving and the making of sail-cloth, serge, and baize, took their rise in this reign. The progress of other arts was much favoured by the bloody persecutions of the Duke of Alva in the Netherlands, which drove into England great numbers of weavers, dyers, cloth-dressers, and silk-throwers. Amongst the wealthier classes, the wearing of handsome apparel and of gold ornaments and jewellery, made a great advance. Coaches were introduced, but for a

time thought only fit for the use of ladies. Great improvements were made in the building of houses. Theatrical amusements were begun, and attained great vogue, though only in London. The smoking of tobacco was introduced by Sir Walter Raleigh, who became acquainted with the plant in Virginia. At the end of Elizabeth's reign, the population of London was about 160,000, or a fifteenth of what it now is; and the whole kingdom probably contained about 5,000,000 of inhabitants.



Crown-piece of Queen Elizabeth.

James I.

153. THE successor of Elizabeth, by birthright, was JAMES THE SIXTH OF SCOTLAND (styled JAMES THE FIRST OF ENGLAND), who was now arrived at the prime of life, and had been married for some years to the Princess Anne of Denmark, by whom he had two sons, Henry and Charles, and one daughter, named Elizabeth. He immediately removed to London, and assumed the government of England, while his native kingdom, though thus united under the same sovereignty, still retained its own peculiar institutions. At the suggestion of the king, who wished to obliterate the distinction of the two countries, the common name of Great Britain was now conferred upon them.

154. King James was an oddity in human character. His person was naturally feeble, particularly in the limbs, which were scarcely sufficient to support his weight. He had great

capacity for learning, some acuteness, and a considerable share of wit, but was pedantic, vain, and weak. His timidity was so great, that he could not endure the sight of a drawn sword. He wrote various treatises on religion and politics, in which there is a show of plausible sense, mixed with absurd notions and childish remarks. He loved hunting, cock-fighting, and wine, and delighted in the society of handsome young men, without any regard to their being of estimable character. Amongst his most cherished notions was a high sense of the kingly character and profession, or, as he called it, craft. He believed kings to be the deputies of God, and accountable to God alone for their actions. He was equally disposed with Elizabeth to govern despotically, or according to his own will ; but he wanted the vigour and the turn for popularity which enabled his predecessor to become so much the mistress of her subjects.

155. Notwithstanding the energy of Elizabeth, the popular spirit had gradually been acquiring force in her reign. It was chiefly seen in the acts of the Puritans, a religious party, who wished to make great reforms in the church, both in its government and its worship, and who, from the fervour of their devotions and the strictness of their manners, might be likened to the Presbyterians of Scotland. King James found considerable difficulty at the very first in controlling this party and evading their demands. He was no less troubled, on the other hand, by the Catholics, who, recollecting his mother Mary, conceived that he would be inclined to make matters more easy to them in England. Upon the whole, there were such difficulties in the way, that to have steered clearly through them, would have required a wiser instead of a weaker ruler than Elizabeth.

156. The king, having a taste for religious controversy, condescended to meet a few of the Puritan divines, in order to argue them out of their peculiar views. This, it may be supposed, was of no use in satisfying them, though the king took to himself the credit of beating them in argument. The only important result of the conference was a resolution to have a new translation of the Bible, which was accordingly effected by a body of learned men, under the authority of the king. This translation is the same which is still in use.

Gunpowder Plot.

157. THE disappointment of the Catholics, on finding that the severe laws against them were not to be relaxed, led to a dreadful conspiracy on the part of a few gentlemen of that persuasion, of whom the chief was Robert Catesby, a person of dissolute habits. It was arranged that, on the day of the meeting of parliament, November 5, 1605, the House of Lords should be blown up by gunpowder, at the moment when the King, Peers, and Commons were all assembled in it, thus destroying, as they thought, all their chief enemies at one blow, and making way for a new government which should be more favourable to them. Accordingly, two hogsheads and thirty-two barrels of powder were deposited in the cellars beneath the house, and a person named Guy Fawkes was prepared to kindle it at the proper time. The plot was discovered, in consequence of the receipt of a letter by Lord Mounteagle, warning him not to attend the meeting of parliament. An investigation took place during the night between the 4th and 5th of November, when the gunpowder was discovered, and Fawkes taken into custody. He confessed his intentions ; and the rest of the conspirators fled to the country, where most of them were cut to pieces in endeavouring to defend themselves : others were executed in London in the barbarous fashion enjoined by the law of high treason. Notwithstanding the atrocious character of this plot, the king could never be induced to take advantage of it, as most of his subjects desired, for the purpose of increasing the persecution of the Catholic party : he probably feared that new severities might only give rise to other attempts against his life.

Plantations in Ireland.

158. THE state in which the king found Ireland at his accession, afforded an opportunity for commencing a more generous policy in reference to that country, and introducing regulations favourable to internal improvement. Previously to this reign, the legislative authority of the English government was confined to the small district called 'the Pale,'

while the rest was governed by native sovereigns or chiefs, whose connection with the King of England was merely that of feudal homage, which did not prevent them from making wars or alliances with each other. During the reign of Henry VIII., only three Irish lords were settled in their possessions by any grant or confirmation of the crown, and even these, it is said, did not admit the forms of the English law within their territories, but governed by the old Brehon laws. It would appear that the authority of the English laws was thus limited, not from the unwillingness of the native Irish to receive them, or of the English legislature to grant them, but from the interference of those English nobles whose families had been naturalised. These, finding Ireland convenient for such purposes, continually harassed the native chiefs, seized their territories, and held them as independent princes. They got districts erected into palatinates, or counties palatine, in which, as lords or counts palatine, they held an exclusive and independent jurisdiction, and granted feus almost in the same manner as absolute monarchs. In England, only one district, Chester, was in a similar situation ; but in Ireland, for some time, almost the whole of the part subjected to England was in this manner divided among the Strongbows, Lacys, Geraldines, Butlers, and other powerful families. A great part of Scotland, it may be observed, was ruled in a similar manner, and there the jurisdictions were called regalities.

159. Subject to depredations from these powerful barons, the native Irish, from a very early period, petitioned for the benefit of the English laws. In 1278, Edward I. shewed a willingness to grant such a request, provided he were paid for doing so ; but the Irish parliament, which was composed of the English barons, was never at a loss for the means of preventing this desirable measure from being effected. James was, in reality, the first king who extended the English law over the whole of Ireland, by making judicial appointments suited to the extent of the country. This he was enabled to do, by the recent wars having put the country more completely in his power than it had been in that of any former monarch. He began by extending favour to the Irish chiefs, not excepting Tyrone. He passed an act of oblivion and indemnity, by which all persons who had committed offences,

coming to the judges of assize within a certain day, might claim a full pardon. He likewise granted a commission to accept surrenders of the estates held according to the old Irish customs, and grant them back, to be held by the possessors according to the English law, by which the owners could not make the same exactions from their tenants, or maintain the same absolute authority over them, which they formerly practised.

160. From the vacillating conduct of James in manifesting his religious opinions, the Catholics of Ireland fondly persuaded themselves that he belonged to their religion; a general joy was exhibited through the kingdom on his accession, and the Romish priests openly took possession of the churches, and officiated in public. James, who, although he cared little about the differences between Catholic and Protestant, could not endure that the Pope should have any authority in his dominions, ordered all priests, by proclamation, to quit the realm, and rigorously enforced the act of supremacy. All toleration was virtually refused to the Catholic persuasion, and from that time the Irish were put under the charge of clergymen of the church of England, for whose support a regular provision was made out of the land.

161. In the year 1607, an anonymous letter, dropped in the Privy-Council Chamber, stated that Tyrone, Tyreconnel, and other chieftains of the north, were engaged in a far-spread conspiracy. The hint was quickly taken. The chieftains, knowing their danger, fled, and their vast estates were forfeited to the crown. At the suggestion of the king and the celebrated Bacon, these estates were made the subject of an experiment, which might have been beneficial if managed in a less partial spirit. Without regard to the claims of the native inhabitants, the lands, comprising the counties of Cavan, Fermanagh, Tyrone, Derry, Armagh, and Donegal, were distributed among persons divided into three classes:—the first being English or Scottish strangers; the second, persons who had served in the wars against the Irish, and whose native vassals had come under the oath of supremacy; and the third, Irish who had not taken the oath of supremacy, but came under other restrictions. The establishing of Plantations, as they were called, whatever might be the final advantage, pro-

duced a course of rapacity which cannot be justified. The English judges shewed so much readiness to forfeit Irish estates, that the examination of titles for the purpose of discovering flaws became a profitable employment. Some estates, surrendered according to the late law, had not been formally enrolled in Chancery, from the negligence of the officers, although the money was paid for the purpose. This was an excellent opportunity of a plantation, and the king and council were proceeding to declare the whole forfeited, when they were checked by some appearance of danger. A compromise was afterwards made with Charles I. at an enormous cost; but he did not faithfully fulfil his part of the bargain. It must not be omitted, that, in 1613, the first Irish Parliament was held in which there were any representatives of places beyond the Pale.

The King's Children—The Spanish Match.

162. IN 1612, the king had the misfortune to lose his eldest son, Henry, a youth of nineteen, who was considered as one of the most promising and accomplished men of the age. The second son, Charles, then became the heir-apparent, and James was busied for several years in seeking him out a proper match.

163. The princess selected by his majesty was the second daughter of Philip III. of Spain—a match not very popular, on account of the young lady being a Catholic, but which James thought advantageous, as tending to conciliate the people of that religion, and also because the princess belonged to one of the most powerful houses in Europe. Some delay occurring in the negotiations, the prince set out in 1622, with his young friend the Duke of Buckingham, to visit the court of Spain in disguise, and, if possible, make personal application to the lady herself. The prince and duke travelled under the names of John and Thomas Smith, probably because these were then, as now, the most common and undistinguishing names in England. At Madrid, the prince was received with great distinction under his proper character. The chivalrous nature of the expedition had great fascinations

for the Spanish court and people. Numerous splendid pageants were performed in his honour, and he was admitted to more ready intercourse with the princess, than was ever before permitted by the jealous and solemn court of Spain. Many negotiations of different kinds were conducted for the furtherance of this match, and communications passed between the Pope and the prince, which shewed that the latter had no great antipathy to the Roman Catholic faith. The match was, however, after much delay, broken off, for reasons which have hitherto remained a deep mystery. It is believed by some that neither party was ever sincere, and by others that the breach was simply occasioned by a quarrel between Buckingham and Olivarez, the prime minister of Spain, a man as proud and overbearing as Buckingham, and more gloomy and vindictive. This matter, which, in the course of the history of such a nation as Britain, would be trifling in itself, is important from having been the cause of a bloody war between the two nations.

164. Elizabeth, the only remaining child of the king, was married, in 1613, to Frederick, Prince Palatine of the Rhine, who was afterwards so unfortunate as to lose his dominions, in consequence of his placing himself at the head of the Bohemians, in what was considered as a rebellion against his superior, the Emperor of Germany. This discrowned pair, by their youngest daughter, Sophia, who married the Duke of Brunswick, were the ancestors of the family which now reigns over Britain.

Features of James First's Government.

165. THE reign of James I. was not marked by what are called great events. This was greatly owing to his timid character, which induced him to maintain peace, at whatever sacrifice, throughout the greater part of his reign. For the first few years, he had the benefit of the sagacious services of Sir Robert Cecil, the minister of Elizabeth in her latter years; but after his death (1612), the prime leaders of the government were youthful favourites of depraved habits. The first of these was Robert Carr, of a good family in Scotland, a young man of singularly elegant person, but of a low and

vicious nature. This youth was created by the king Earl of Somerset, but he at length brought about his own fall by the odium which he incurred through a criminal attachment to the Countess of Essex, and through a murder, of which he and the countess were guilty. Somerset was succeeded by George Villiers, a young man of not less beauty, and somewhat better character, whom the king raised to the dignity of Duke of Buckingham. Experienced statesmen, brave soldiers, and learned divines, had to bow to these dissolute youths, if they wished to remain, and still more if they hoped to advance, in the royal favour. Even Bacon, the noblest intellect of the age, and who, by the result of his studies, has done more than almost any other man to promote the progress of knowledge, is found to have attached himself to Buckingham, for the purpose of improving his interest at court.

166. In despotic countries, the vices of the court often corrupt all classes, but it was otherwise at that period in Britain. The country gentlemen, and the merchants in the incorporated towns, had privileges which the court dared not too often violate, and a feeling of rectitude and independence was encouraged among these classes, which the statesmen of the age too much overlooked. The House of Commons gave frequent resistance to the court, and often compelled James to yield, at the very moment when he was preaching his doctrines of divine right. In his first parliament, they took into consideration several grievances, such as *purveyance*, a supposed right in the officers of the court to seize what provisions they pleased, at any price, or at no price; another was the right of granting *monopolies*, which had become a source of revenue to the court by cheating the country, certain persons having the monopoly of certain manufactures and articles of domestic consumption, which they were allowed to furnish at their own prices. The Commons likewise remonstrated against pluralities in the church, and against a new set of canons which the king and the church tried to force on the nation without their consent. The king having attempted to impose duties on certain imports by his own royal mandate, Bates, a Turkey merchant, resisted, and tried the question before a court of law. It

was decided against him by the judges ; but he was supported by the House of Commons.

167. James grew much discontented with the conduct of his first parliament, and sent them a scolding message, telling them that they had no privileges but through his grace. They answered that 'their privileges and liberties were their right and inheritance, no less than their very lands and goods, and that they cannot be withheld from them, denied, or impaired, but with apparent wrong to the whole state of the realm.' Notwithstanding many explicit declarations that parliament was determined to preserve its rights, the clergy still flattered the king with doctrines of divine right, and one Dr Cowell published a book, in which it was alleged that 'the king is above the law by his absolute power ; and though, for the better and equal course in making laws, he do admit the three estates into council, yet this in divers learned men's opinions is not of constraint, but of his own benignity, or by reason of the promise made upon oath at the time of his coronation.' The Commons, conceiving that they might be seriously affected by such an opinion, especially as it was openly patronised by the king, took up the matter as a breach of their privileges, and compelled the king to suppress the book by proclamation. The later parliaments grew still bolder. The king offered to relieve some grievances ; but the Commons would receive no instalment. In 1614, they threatened to postpone any supply till their grievances were redressed. The king, in his turn, threatened to dissolve them if they did not immediately grant a supply ; and they allowed him to take his course, which did not fill his coffers. These, and many other instances of bold resistance, should have given warning to the court. They were the shadows of coming events, and attention to them might have saved the bloodshed and confusion of the next reign.

168. King James died on the 27th of March 1625, at the age of fifty-nine, having reigned over England and Ireland for twenty-two years and over Scotland for nearly the whole of his life.

Miscellaneous Circumstances connected with the Reign of James I.

169. ENGLISH literature, which first made a decisive advance in the reign of Elizabeth, continued to be cultivated with great success in the reign of King James. The excellence of the language at this time as a medium for literature, is strikingly shewn in the translation of the Bible now executed. It is also shewn in the admirable dramatic writings of Shakspeare, and in the valuable philosophic works of Bacon. The inductive philosophy, made known by the last writer—namely, that mode of gaining knowledge or advancing science which consists in first ascertaining facts, and then inferring conclusions from them—reflects peculiar lustre on this period of our history. Very great praise is also due to Napier of Merchiston, in Scotland, for the invention of *logarithms*, a mode of calculating great numbers, essential to the progress of mathematical science.

170. James I. was very liberal in giving titles of nobility; he established the order of baronets, usually conferring the honour in exchange for a sum of money. He was very desirous that London should not be farther enlarged, and he used to urge the nobility to live in the country, saying that they were regarded as persons of more importance there than in London. But, nevertheless, the metropolis was much increased in size during this reign, and brick buildings were now for the first time generally introduced, instead of the older buildings, which were chiefly composed of wood.

Charles I.—His Contentions with the House of Commons.

171. On the death of King James, his only surviving son, Charles, now twenty-five years of age, peaceably ascended the throne. One of the first acts of the A.D. 1625. young king was to marry the Princess Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry IV. of France, and a Catholic. This was an unfortunate step for the house of Stuart, for the two eldest sons of the king and queen, though educated as Protestants,

were influenced in some measure by the religious creed of their mother, so that they ultimately became Catholics ; and this, in the case of the second son, James II., led to the family being expelled from the throne.

172. The country was now engaged in a war with Spain, conducted at an expense of £700,000 a year. The king called a parliament, in order to raise the necessary funds ; but the lower house, instead of yielding the desired supplies,



Charles the First.—From Lodge's Portraits.

proceeded to arraign the conduct of the Duke of Buckingham, and others of the king's ministers. Charles dissolved the parliament, after it had sat only three weeks, and endeavoured to obtain partial supplies of money by other means. This spirit in the House of Commons arose from the large number of Puritan members infused into it.

173. The king found himself next year compelled to call his parliament once more together, in order to raise money ;

but the same course was again pursued by the House of Commons, and articles of impeachment being now prepared against Buckingham, a dissolution again followed, without one act having been passed. On this occasion, two leading members of the opposition, Sir Dudley Digges and Sir John Eliot, were committed to the Tower for using bold language towards the court. Such events were calculated to produce great hatred between the king and a portion of his people. The breach was further widened by the expedients he adopted to raise money : he levied the taxes of tonnage and poundage by his own authority, on the pretext that he would afterwards seek the sanction of parliament; he revived a practice of the early kings, in forcing individuals to grant him loans and *benevolences*, causing such as had no money to serve as common soldiers or sailors ; and another old custom was put in force, for obliging certain ports to fit out vessels for the public service at their own cost. At the same time, soldiers were quartered in private houses. Many individuals, who were not disposed to obey such measures, were thrown into prison.

174. In the midst of the troubles arising from these causes, a mere private resentment of the Duke of Buckingham drew the king into a war with France, by which his expenses were greatly increased. The contest was conducted by the Duke himself, but with no success. A large armament which he led (June 1627) for the relief of the Protestant city of Rochelle, then besieged by the French king, failed in its object, and returned disgracefully, with the loss of the third part of the troops. The king was obliged next year to call a third parliament, which, being animated by the same spirit as the two former ones, proceeded, before granting any money, to embody their chief desires in a bill which they called a *Petition of Right*—demand- **A.D. 1628.** ing that no loans or taxes should be raised but by consent of parliament ; that no man should be imprisoned but by legal process ; that soldiers should not be quartered on the people ; and that no commissions should be granted for executing martial law. Charles made several attempts to evade this bill, and pacify the Commons, by declaring in general terms that every thing should be done according to the laws and customs of the realm ; but the Commons held to their point,

and he at length passed the act, which the people generally regarded as one of great importance for establishing their liberties. The house was so much gratified with this concession, that it immediately granted five subsidies. Buckingham then prepared a new armament for the relief of Rochelle; but, while he was superintending the operations at Portsmouth, a discharged lieutenant named Felton, in whom the Commons' proceedings against the duke had excited a madness on that subject, deemed it a duty he owed to God and his country to put an end to the life of the unpopular minister, whom he therefore stabbed to the heart with a knife, immediately after which he quietly yielded himself into custody. The expedition sailed under the Earl of Lindsay, but was as unsuccessful as the last, so that Rochelle was surrendered to the French king, after many thousands of its citizens had perished by famine.

175. While himself disposed to support the church, it was impossible that the king could long agree with a House of Commons of which the majority were unfriendly to that establishment. Neither were their views respecting state policy to be easily reconciled. Quarrels were therefore inevitable, and civil war might be considered as an event likely to take place. It conveys some notion of Charles's feelings and ideas, that we find him about this time telling the Commons, from his own mouth, that he considered himself accountable only to God for his acts as a king. He sternly forbade them to discuss religious matters. On one occasion, when they were preparing a remonstrance, he came to interfere in person: they locked their doors; he caused a blacksmith to break them open; but, when he entered, he found that the house had adjourned. At length, he caused nine of the more conspicuous patriots to be put into the Tower, and (March 10, 1629) dissolved the parliament, calling these men in his speech by the term 'common-vipers.' Such acts shew the imperious spirit by which he was governed. On the other hand, the opposition was animated by a singular spirit of enthusiasm, which might have given alarm to any government anxious even in a moderate degree to support ancient establishments. Their political views were perhaps not much less extreme than those

of the king, and their religious feelings reached a degree of fervour and strictness, which could not perhaps have been very easily reconciled with any system of public affairs. They were eager to repress Popery, for which purpose they often, as justices of peace, put in force those very laws which equally condemned their own form of dissent. They were more particularly at this time indignant at the progress which the doctrines of the Dutch divine Arminius were making in the Church of England. The character of the party is marked in more private points by the severity of their manners, their antipathy to common amusements, more particularly to plays and masques, and their anxiety to introduce the Jewish mode of observing the Sabbath. The keenness with which such matters were debated in those days can scarcely now be imagined.

Illegal Taxes—Hampden.

176. On dissolving his third parliament, the king resolved to call no more. In order to reduce his expenses, he was glad to make a peace with France (1629), and with Spain (1630), after which there was no foreign war for upwards of twenty years. The nine patriots were not released, till one of them, Sir John Eliot, died in prison. Some others of the opposition were gained over to the court, particularly Sir Thomas Wentworth, who afterwards, as Earl of Strafford, became one of the most noted instruments of the king's authority. Charles now began to give much of his confidence to Laud, Archbishop of Canterbury, whose leading policy it was, not only to root out Puritanism, but to bring back the Church so far in its rites and ceremonies towards Catholicism, as might tend to conciliate the adherents of that faith—a policy altogether opposite to the tendency of the age, which was adverse to the ceremonial part of religion. The expenses of the government were supported partly by the ordinary revenues of the crown, partly by granting monopolies, but principally by illegal taxes, of which the chief was *ship-money*, or a composition for the presumed obligation to furnish vessels for the public service. For making objections to these taxes, men were dragged before

an arbitrary court of the king, called the Star-Chamber, and punished by severe fines and imprisonment. Opposition to the established religion was punished with even greater severity by an ecclesiastical body, called the Court of High Commission. In 1630, a divine named Leighton, for publishing a pamphlet against prelacy, was put on the pillory, had his ears cut off, his nose slit, and the letters 'S. S.' for *Sower of Sedition*, branded on his cheek. A few years later, one Prynne, who had written against theatricals, was punished in the same way, and thrown into prison for life. Many such cases occurred, and could not but implant a deep spirit of discontent. The Puritans, feeling themselves so disagreeably placed at home, emigrated in large numbers to a part of the North American continent, which they called *New England*, and there laid the foundation of what is now a great state.

177. The money raised by the king was not of large amount, and each man's share was only a trifle in comparison with his means; but nothing could reconcile the people to taxes imposed without the consent of parliament. For years the practice was submitted to, from the reluctance of individuals to expose themselves to prosecution; but at length one was found to place himself in opposition to it on legal grounds. This was the celebrated John Hampden, a gentleman of Buckinghamshire, whose fortune was about £600 a year, and his share of the tax of ship-money only twenty shillings. The case was tried in the **A.D. 1637.** Court of Exchequer; and as the judges were then dismissable at the royal pleasure; and of course obsequious servants of the king, a decision was given against Hampden. But during the trial, which lasted six months, the attention of the people was fixed upon the discussion; the fundamental principles of government were reasoned upon; and a bold and menacing spirit took possession of the nation. Means were not long wanting to give an effectual check to the king in his unfortunate career.

Troubles in Scotland—The National Covenant.

178. An attempt had been made by King James to

introduce the Episcopal Church into Scotland, because it was thought dangerous to the English church that a form of worship, resembling that of the Puritans, should be permitted to exist in any part of the king's dominions. The same object was prosecuted with greater zeal by King Charles ; and although the people were almost universally adverse to it, he had succeeded, after a visit which he paid to the country in 1633, in settling thirteen bishops over the church, by whom he hoped to govern the clergy as he did those of England. But when he attempted to introduce a new Book of Common Prayer into the Scotch churches, the spirit of the people could no longer be kept within bounds. On the Liturgy being opened in the principal church at Edinburgh, the congregation rose in a violent tumult, and threw their clasped **July 23, 1637.** Bibles, and the very stools they sat on, at the minister's head ; and it was not till the whole were expelled by force, that the worship was permitted to proceed. It was found necessary, by the Scottish state-officers, to withdraw the obnoxious Liturgy till they should consult the king, who, not dreading any mischief, gave orders that it should be used as he had formerly directed, and that the civil force should be employed in protecting the clergymen. It was found impossible to obey such an order in the face of a united people, who, by committees assembled at Edinburgh, representing the nobles, ministers, gentry, and burghers, endeavoured to awe the king into an abandonment of the late innovations. Charles tried, by every means in his power, to avoid such a humiliation, which he believed would give immense force to the innovators in England. But the Scotch, when they found him hesitating, bound themselves (March 1638), under a bond called the *National Covenant*, which was signed by nineteen-twentieths of the adult population, to resist their sovereign in every attempt he might make to bring in upon them the errors of Popery—for such they held to be the forms of worship and ecclesiastical government which Charles had lately imposed upon their church. The king sent his favourite Scotch counsellor, the Marquis of Hamilton, to treat with his northern subjects ; but nothing would satisfy them but the calling of a General

Assembly of the church, for the purpose of settling all disputes. Charles, though he saw that this was only an appeal to the heads of the party by which he had been opposed, consented to the proposal, for the purpose of gaining time, in order that he might make warlike preparations against his refractory people.

179. The Assembly met at Glasgow in November, and, as might have been expected, formally purified the church from all the late innovations, excommunicating the bishops, and declaring the government of the clergy to rest, as formerly, in the General Assembly, which consisted of a selection of two clergymen from each presbytery, with a mixture of lay-elders, and nothing to control its proceedings but their interpretation of the will of the divine founder of the Christian religion. Early in the succeeding year, the king, with great difficulty, collected an army of twenty thousand men, whom he led to the border of Scotland, for the purpose of reducing these despisers of his authority. The Scotch, however, strengthened by devotional feeling, and a certainty that the English, in general, were favourable to their cause, formed an army equal in number, which was placed under the command of General Alexander Leslie, an officer who had served with distinction in the long Protestant war carried on against the Emperor of Germany. The Scottish army

June 1639. was encamped on the top of Dunse Law, a hill overlooking the border, where the duties of military parade were mingled with prayers and preachings, such as were never before witnessed in a camp. The king, seeing the wavering of his own men, and the steadfastness of the Scotch, was obliged to open a negotiation, in which it was agreed to disband both armies, and to refer the disputes once more to a General Assembly and a Scottish parliament.

180. The king now adopted a new policy with the people of Scotland. Having formerly gained over some of the English patriots, he thought he might be equally successful with the lords of the Covenant, whom he therefore invited to attend him at Berwick, where the late negotiations had been conducted. A few obeyed the summons; but he failed with all except the Earl (afterwards Marquis) of Montrose,

a noble of vigorous genius, whose ambition had been wounded by not having so high a place in the councils of his countrymen as he thought he deserved. Even though the king had gained more of the lords, it is not probable that his cause would have been much advanced by it, for the enthusiasm which prevailed in Scotland would have soon called forth new leaders. Montrose for some time appeared on good terms with the Covenanters, but was in secret devoted to the king, and soon became the head of the royalist party in Scotland.

181. In the new General Assembly and Parliament (1640), the votes were equally decisive against Episcopacy; and though Charles prorogued the latter body before it had completed its proceedings, it nevertheless continued sitting, and voted every measure which it thought necessary. The king collected a second army, and, in order to raise money for a new expedition against the Scots, was reduced to the necessity of calling an English parliament, the first that had met for eleven years. It met (April 13), but, without listening for a moment to a request for **A.D. 1640.** subsidies, began to discuss the national grievances. Finding it quite intractable, the king dissolved it (May 5), and endeavoured to obtain supplies in other quarters. A convocation of the clergy granted him £20,000 per annum for the next six years. The nobility and gentry advanced £300,000; but, when the city of London was asked for a loan of £200,000, it absolutely refused.

182. The Scots did not, on this occasion, wait to be attacked by the king, but marched into the north of England, in the expectation of being **Aug. 1640.** supported in their claims by the English people in general. Throughout these proceedings, they professed a rational loyalty towards the king, and only avowed hostility to Archbishop Laud, the Earl of Strafford, and other royal counsellors, whom they professed to consider as alone blamable for the differences between the king and his people. On the 28th of August, the Scots were opposed by an advanced party of the royal army at a ford on the Tyne, near Newburn; but they forced their way through all impediments, and, driving the English before them, took possession

of Newcastle. Charles and his minister, Strafford, tried every means of exciting the old hostile feeling of the English against the Scots; but common objects in civil and religious liberty had now rendered them friends, and both nations conceived themselves to have no enemy but the king's counsellors. Animated by such feelings, the English army shewed a strong disinclination to meet the Scots on the field, inso-much that the king found it necessary to abandon all hope of reducing the latter people to obedience by arms. He once more opened a negotiation for peace; and it was soon after agreed at a council of peers that all the present dissensions should be referred to the parliaments of the two countries, the Scottish army being, in the meantime, kept up on English pay, till such time as they were satisfied with the state of their affairs.

Sitting of the Long Parliament.

183. THE English parliament met in November, and immediately commenced a series of measures for effectually and permanently abridging the royal **A.D. 1640.** authority. There was even a party, who, provoked by the late arbitrary measures, contemplated the total abolition of the monarchy, and the establishment of a republic. Religion was to appearance the moving-spring of the revolution. The destruction of the Episcopal system was now desired by a large portion of the nation. Much zeal was manifested on the popular side against the Catholics, but evidently not so much from a sincere fear of that body of Christians, as the conveniency of setting them up as objects of popular alarm, and making each strong measure appear as only a necessary safeguard against their machinations. The first acts of the parliament had little or no immediate reference to Scotland. The Earl of Strafford was impeached of treason against the liberties of the people, and executed (May 12, 1641), notwithstanding a solemn promise made to him by the king that he should never suffer in person or estate. Archbishop Laud was impeached and imprisoned, but reserved for future vengeance. The remaining ministers of the king only saved themselves by flight. Some of the judges were imprisoned

and fined. The abolition of Episcopacy was taken into consideration. The Catholics fell under a severe persecution ; and even the person of the queen, who belonged to this faith, was not considered safe.

184. It was not till August 1641, when the English parliament had gained many of its objects, that they permitted the treaty of peace with Scotland to be fully ratified. They then gratified the Scottish troops, not only with their full pay at the rate of £850 a day, but with a vote of no less a sum than £300,000 besides, of which £80,000 was paid down, as an indirect way of furnishing their party with the means of future resistance. The king, on his part, also took measures for gaining the attachment of this formidable body of soldiery, and of the Scottish nation in general. He had agreed to be present at the meeting of their parliament, in the autumn of this year. In his journey to the north, he passed through the camp at Newcastle, and accepted an invitation to dine with General Leslie. On his arrival in Edinburgh, he squared his conduct carefully with the rigour of Presbyterian manners. In the parliament he was exceedingly complaisant : he readily ratified all the acts of the preceding irregular session : he yielded up the right of appointing the state-officers in Scotland, and he ordained that the Scottish parliament should meet once every three years without regard to his will—all of which were points of the greatest importance. The men who had acted most conspicuously against him in the late insurrections, now became his chief counsellors, and he seemed to bestow favours upon them exactly in proportion to their enmity. He created General Leslie Earl of Leven, putting on his coronet with his own hand. The Earl of Argyle, who had been the chief political leader of the Covenanters, was made a marquis. Many others received promotions in the peerage. The offices of state were distributed amongst them. Thus, it will be observed, the affections of the Scots were in a manner set up to auction between the king and his English parliament, and from both did they receive considerable advantages.

185. But, while thus intriguing with the Covenanting leaders, Charles also kept up a correspondence with a royalist party which had been embodied by the Earl of Montrose.

This nobleman was now suffering confinement in Edinburgh Castle, for his exertions in favour of the king. In the anguish of disappointed ambition, he concocted an enterprise, in the manner of a former age, against the lives of his political opponents. The king having refused his sanction to the scheme, he seems to have resolved upon executing one of a less ferocious character, without his majesty's knowledge. The Marquis of Argyle had all along been the prime object of Montrose's antipathy, and the odium was now shared by the Marquis of Hamilton, who at this time held a nearly equal place in the Scottish councils, and by the Earl of Lanark, his younger brother. These three noblemen Montrose intended to be suddenly seized, and taken on board a vessel in the Firth of Forth. On the same night, his friends were to surprise Edinburgh Castle, and endeavour to bring about a complete revolution in favour of the royal cause. The plot was detected, and the three noblemen retired precipitately to the country. Charles himself was the only person who suffered: the scheme, though probably unknown to him, was universally laid to his charge, and it introduced suspicions of his sincerity that tended to neutralise the effects of his late favours, and also to afford grounds of reproach to the English parliament, who had naturally viewed his journey to Scotland with great jealousy. After spending
Nov. 1641. about three months in Edinburgh, the king was suddenly called away, in consequence of intelligence which reached him from Ireland.

The Irish Rebellion.

186. THE cruel policy already mentioned, by which large portions of Ireland were depopulated, and then planted with colonies of English and Scotch settlers, had been continued during the reign of Charles. The inhabitants of Connaught had complied with the condition of surrendering their estates into the hands of the king, to receive them back by a proper legal tenure; and accordingly they were furnished with titles, which were apparently formal and correct. A mistake, however, had been made, either accidentally or by design, in the

manner in which the titles passed through the hands of one of the king's officers. They were thus considered legally invalid, and it was recommended to Charles to get them pronounced to be so. So great a clamour, however, was raised by the inhabitants, that Charles agreed to ratify the titles, and to reform some abuses, on his being paid £120,000 within three years. It was stipulated that, within this period, a parliament should be held to confirm these 'graces,' as they were termed. This was evaded very skilfully by the summoning an informal parliament, which could not sit; and at the end of the three years, the king threatened to restrain his 'graces,' if the contribution were not renewed.

187. In addition to this and other local causes of complaint, the state of religion was one which pervaded nearly the whole country, and was always becoming more and more important. Though the reformed faith had been established for nearly a century, it had made little progress except among the English settlers. The greater part of the nobility, and also of the lower orders, were still attached to the ancient creed; and a Catholic hierarchy, appointed by the Pope, and supported by the people, enjoyed as much respect and obedience as when that religion was countenanced by the state. The refusal of the Catholics to take the oath of supremacy, which acknowledged the king to possess a right which their faith taught them to belong to the Pope, necessarily excluded them from all branches of the public service. There were also penal laws against the profession of Catholicism, and a severe court of Star-Chamber to carry these into execution. Thus situated, the Irish Catholics had two strong motives to mutiny—a confidence in their numbers, and a constant sense of suffering under the government.

188. The Earl of Strafford was appointed viceroy of Ireland. His government was vigorous, and those institutions which he thought proper to patronise **A.D. 1633.** flourished under it; but his great aim was to make the king absolute, and he rather subdued than conciliated the popular spirit. When summoned in 1640 to attend the king in England, he left the Irish government in the hands of Sir William Parsons and Sir John Borlase, as Lords Justices.

Immediately after his departure, the spirit which he thought he had quelled began to reappear, being encouraged both by his absence, and by the success which the Scottish Covenanters had experienced in a war against religious restraint. A conspiracy, involving most of the country without the Pale, and including many persons within it, was formed, chiefly under the direction of a gentleman named Roger Moore, who possessed many qualities calculated to endear him to the people. Some circumstances excited the suspicion of the Protestants; and, among others, the return of several officers who had been in the service of the King of Spain, under pretence of recruiting for the Spanish army. But the apparent tranquillity of the country baffled all scrutiny.

189. The 23d of October 1641, being a market-day, was fixed on for the capture of Dublin Castle. **A.D. 1641.** During the previous day, nothing had occurred to alarm the authorities. In the evening of the 22d, Owen O'Connally, a gentleman of Irish extraction, met by appointment with Colonel M'Mahon, one of the conspirators, who wished to prevail on him to join the project. O'Connally was struck with alarm and horror at the disclosure, but dared not for some time leave his companion without endangering his own life. He obtained his object by joining M'Mahon in a deep debauch, during which he with difficulty escaped. He proceeded directly to Lord Justice Parsons, to whom he imparted his alarming intelligence; but between fright and intoxication, his manner was so confused, that little attention was at first paid to his communication. As he recovered his senses, he gave a more distinct account of the impending danger, and the justices, becoming truly alarmed, placed guards on the gates of the city, and apprehended M'Mahon, who, being put to the torture of the rack, confessed the conspiracy. Thus was Dublin saved; but a civil war raged next morning in Ulster, and speedily spread over the country.

190. The design of Sir Phelim O'Neill, and the other leaders of the insurrection, was simply political. They conceived the time a good one for striking a blow against the government, as the Scots had done; and their conduct was

in the outset characterised by moderation. They could not, however, allay the hatred with which the Catholics looked upon their adversaries ; and a spirit of revenge broke out among their followers which was aggravated to cruel outrage, when they heard that the conspiracy was discovered in Dublin. The spirit of retaliation was let loose, and political wrongs unfeelingly inflicted, were, as is often the case, ferociously avenged. The massacre of an immense number of Protestants held forth an awful lesson of the effects which oppressive laws produce on the human passions. The government rather aggravated than alleviated the evil, by offering the estates of all in rebellion to those who should aid in reducing them to obedience. This drove the insurgents to desperation, and postponed the complete extinction of the war for several years. It is to be remarked, that, though the Irish were struggling for both national and religious freedom, they gained no sympathy from the patriots of Britain, who, on the contrary, urged the king to suppress the rebellion, being afraid that a religious toleration in Ireland would be inconsistent with the same privilege in their own country. The Scottish Covenanters, themselves so recently emancipated from a restraint upon their consciences, contributed ten thousand troops to assist in restoring that restraint upon the Irish.

The Remonstrance—Commencement of the Civil War.

191. It was generally allowed by moderate people, that in the autumn of 1641, at which time the labours of the parliament had continued one year, the king had granted redress of all the abuses for which the earlier part of his reign, and the British constitution in general, were blamable. If he could have given a guarantee that he never would seek to restore any of these abuses, or attempt to revenge himself upon the men who had been chiefly concerned in causing him to give them up, there would have been no further contention. Unfortunately, the character of the king for fidelity to his engagements was not sufficiently high to induce the leaders of the House of Commons to

depend upon him : they felt that, if they once permitted him to resume his authority, there would be no longer any safety for them ; and they deemed it necessary that things should be prevented from falling into their usual current. They therefore prepared a paper, called *The Remonstrance*, containing an elaborate view of all the grievances that had ever existed, or could now be supposed to exist ; and this they not only presented to the king, but disseminated widely among the people, with whom it served to increase the prevailing disaffection.

192. From this time it was seen that the sword could alone decide the quarrel between the King and the Parliament. Charles made an unsuccessful attempt (January 4, 1642) to seize five members of the House of Commons, for the purpose of striking terror into the rest. This served to widen the breach. In the early part of 1642, the two parties severally employed themselves in preparing for war. Yet, even now, the king granted some additional concessions to his opponents. It was at last, upon a demand of the parliament for the command of the army—a privilege always before and since resting with the crown—that he finally broke off all amicable intercourse. He retired with his family to York.

193. The parliament found its chief support in the mercantile classes of London and of the eastern coast of England, which was then more devoted to trade than the west, and in the Puritan party generally, who were allied intimately with the Presbyterians of Scotland, if not rapidly becoming assimilated with them. Charles, on the other hand, looked for aid to the nobility and gentry, who were able to bring a considerable number of dependants into the field. The parliamentary party was by the other styled *Roundheads*, in consequence of their wearing short hair ; while the friends of the parliament bestowed upon their opponents the epithet of *Malignants*. The royalists were also, in the field, termed Cavaliers, from so many of them being horsemen.

194. On the 22d of August the king erected his standard at Nottingham, and soon found himself at **A.D. 1642.** the head of an army of ten thousand men. The parliament had superior forces, and a better supply

of arms ; but both parties were very ignorant of the art of war. The king commanded his own army in person, and the parliamentary forces were put under the charge of the Earl of Essex.

195. The first battle took place, October 23, at Edgehill, in Warwickshire, where the king had rather the advantage, though at the expense of a great number of men. He gained some further triumphs before the end of the campaign, but still could not muster so large an army as the parliament. During the winter, the parties opened a negotiation at Oxford ; but, the demands of the parliament being still deemed too great by the king, it came to no successful issue.

196. Early in the ensuing season, the king gained some considerable advantages ; he defeated a parliamentary army under Sir William Waller at Stratton, and soon after took the city of Bristol. It only remained for him to take Gloucester, in order to confine the insurrection entirely to the eastern provinces. It was even thought at this time that he might have easily obtained possession of London, and thereby put an end to the war. Instead of making such an attempt, he caused siege to be laid to Gloucester, which the army of Essex relieved when it was just on the point of capitulating. As the parliamentary army was returning to London, it was attacked by the royal forces at Newbury, and all but defeated. Another royal army in the north, under the Marquis of Newcastle, gained some advantages ; and, upon the whole, at the close of the campaign of 1643, the parliamentary cause was not in a flourishing condition.

197. In this war, there was hardly any respectable military quality exhibited, besides courage. The royalists used to rush upon the enemy opposed to them, without any other design than to cut down as many as possible, and, when any part of the army was successful, it never returned to the field while a single enemy remained to be pursued ; the consequence of which was, that one wing was sometimes victorious, while the remainder was beaten. The parliamentary troops, though animated by an enthusiastic feeling of religion, were somewhat steadier, but nevertheless had no extensive or combined plan of military operations. The first appearance of a superior

kind of discipline was exhibited in a regiment of horse commanded by Oliver Cromwell, a gentleman of small fortune, destined, by great genius, sagacity, and address, joined to an inflexible resolution, to rise to supreme authority. Cromwell, though himself inexperienced in military affairs, shewed from the first a power of drilling and managing troops, which no other man in either army seemed to possess. Hence his regiment soon became famous for its exploits.

Solemn League and Covenant.

198. The royal successes of 1643 distressed alike the English parliament and the Scottish nation, who now began to fear the loss of all the concessions they had wrested from the king. The two parliaments therefore entered, in September, into a *Solemn League and Covenant*, **A.D. 1643.** for prosecuting the war in concert, with the view of ultimately settling both church and state in a manner consistent with the liberties of the people. In terms of this bond, the Scots raised an army of 21,000 men, who entered England in January 1644, and, on the 2d of July, in company with a large body of English forces, overthrew the king's northern army on Long Marston Moor. The conduct of the Scottish nation in this transaction was not unexceptionable. They had been gratified in 1641 with a redress of every grievance they could name, ; since which time the king had not given them the least cause of complaint. In now raising war against him, they had no excuse but the very equivocal one, that it was necessary to guard against the possibility of his ever afterwards being able to injure them. They were also acting on English pay, a proceeding not very consistent with their pretensions to independence. The mainspring of their proceedings was a hope of being able to establish the Presbyterian religion in England. The Episcopal church being now abolished, divines were nominated by both nations to meet at Westminster, in order to settle a new form of worship and church-government ; and after a long course of deliberation, it was agreed that the Presbyterian system should be adopted, though in England it was provided that the new

church should have no connection with or influence over the state.

199. The defeat at Long Marston was severely felt by the king. He gained a victory over Waller at Cropredy Bridge, and caused Essex's army to capitulate in Cornwall (September 1); but in consequence of a second fight at Newbury (October 27), in which he suffered a defeat, he was left at the end of the campaign with greatly diminished resources. A new negotiation was commenced at Uxbridge; but the terms asked by the parliament were so exorbitant, as to shew no sincere desire of ending the war. In truth, though the Presbyterian party were perhaps anxious for peace, there was another party, now fast rising into importance, who had no such wishes. These were the Independents, a body of men who wished to see a republic established in the state, and all formalities whatever removed from the national religion. Among the leaders of the party was Cromwell, who, at this early stage, would appear to have foreseen in what the struggle would end. The parliament now agreed, after some discussion, to a famous act, called the *Self-denying Ordinance*, which ostensibly aimed at depriving all members of the legislature of commands in the army, but had the effect only of displacing a few noblemen who were obnoxious to Cromwell. An act was also carried for modelling the army anew, in which process Cromwell took care that all who might be expected to oppose his views should be excluded. It was this party, more particularly, that prevented any accommodation taking place between the king and his subjects.

Montrose's Career in Scotland.

200. WHILE the negotiation was pending, the Marquis (formerly Earl) of Montrose produced a diversion in Scotland in favour of the king. Having got fifteen hundred foot from Ireland, to which he added a few Perthshire Highlanders, he descended upon the Lowlands, and on the 1st of September 1644 gained a complete victory over a larger and better-armed force at Tippermuir. At Aberdeen, whither he went for the purpose of increasing his army, he gained another victory

over a superior body of Covenanters. He was then pursued by a third army, under the Marquis of Argyle, and, after some rapid movements, seemed to dissolve his forces in the Highlands. Ere his enemies were aware, he burst in the middle of winter into the country of his great rival Argyle, which he did not leave till he had made it a desert. Finding himself timidly followed by the marquis, at the head of a large body of the clan Campbell, he turned suddenly, and, falling upon them at Inverlochy (February 2, 1645), gained a complete victory. He then moved along the eastern frontier of the Highlands, where he found himself opposed by a fourth army under General Baillie. After sacking Dundee, and eluding Baillie's troops, he encountered at Auldearn, in Nairnshire (May 4), a greatly superior force, which he also overthrew. Then turning upon Baillie, whom he met at Alford, in Aberdeenshire (July 2), he gained a fifth victory, almost as complete as any of the rest.

201. In all these battles Montrose carried everything before him by the spirit of his first onset, and the slaughter was in general very great. He now descended to the Lowlands, and at Kilsyth, near Glasgow, was opposed by an army of 6000 men, whom the insurgent government at Edinburgh had hastily assembled from Fife and Perthshire. These, with a much smaller force, he also defeated (August 15), killing great numbers in the pursuit. The committees of church and state then broke up and departed from the kingdom, leaving him in appearance its sole master. His successes had in the meantime given the king hopes of carrying on the war with success; but Montrose had in reality gained no sure advantages. Besides his small army of mingled Irish and Highlanders, there was hardly any portion of the nation who did not regard him as only a great public enemy. While

A.D. 1645. lying with a diminished force at Philiphaugh, near Selkirk, he was surprised (September 13) by a detachment of the regular Scottish army, under General David Leslie, who completely defeated his troops, and obliged him to leave the kingdom. His having gained six victories in succession, over larger bodies of men, has procured for him a distinguished name; but his cruelty, and the ambition to which his motives were confined, detract greatly from his character.

Conclusion of the Civil War.

202. THE English campaign of 1645 ended in the complete overthrow of the king. Throughout the war, his enemies had been continually improving in discipline, in conduct, and in that enthusiasm which animated them so largely, while the royalists had become, out of a mere principle of opposition, so extremely licentious, as to be rather a terror to their friends than to their enemies. The new-modelling of the parliamentary army, which took place early in 1645, had also added much to the effectiveness of the troops, who were now nominally commanded by Sir Thomas Fairfax, but in reality by Oliver Cromwell, who bore the rank of lieutenant-general. The consequence was, that, in a pitched battle at Naseby (June 14), the king was so completely beaten, that he and his party could no longer keep the field. He had no resource but to retire into Oxford, a town zealously affected to his cause, and well fortified.

203. He endeavoured, from this forlorn position, to renew the negotiations for a peace ; but every attempt of that kind was frustrated by the Independents, who, though a minority in the House of Commons, possessed great power through the army, and, as already mentioned, were desirous of effecting greater changes in church and state than those for which the war was originally undertaken. Dreading the influence of this body, Charles retired privately from Oxford (May 1646), on the approach of the parliamentary forces, and put himself under the protection of the Scottish army at Newark.

204. As the views of the Scots throughout the war had been steadily confined to the security of the Presbyterian religion, along with the safety of the king's person and the establishment of a limited monarchy, they received him with great respect at their camp, and entered into negotiations for effecting their grand object. If Charles would have acceded to their views, he might have immediately resumed a great part of his former power ; and the agitations of many subsequent years, as well as his own life, might have been spared. But this was forbidden, not only by his strong prepossession in favour of the Episcopal forms of worship, but also by his

conviction that the Episcopal form of church-government was alone compatible with the existence of monarchy. He therefore disagreed with the Presbyterians on the very point which they considered the most important.

205. From the time when Charles first threw himself into the Scottish camp, the English parliament had made repeated and strenuous demands for the surrender of his person into their hands. The Scots, however, though acting partly as a mercenary army, asserted their right, as an independent nation under the authority of the king, to retain and protect him. At length, despairing of inducing him to sanction the Presbyterian forms, and tempted by the sum of £400,000, which was given to them as a compensation for their arrears of pay, they consented to deliver up their monarch, but certainly without any apprehension of his life being in danger, and, indeed, to a party different from that by which he afterwards suffered. It must also be admitted, in extenuation of an act which has exposed the nation to some obloquy, that they could not have retained possession of the king any longer without a war with the English, which would have involved a breach of the Solemn League and Covenant, and a desertion of all their religious objects in favour of an Episcopalian and hostile monarch. After surrendering the king, the Scottish army retired (January 1647) to their native country, and were dismissed.

206. The king was now placed in Holmby House, near Northampton, and negotiations were opened for restoring him to power. While these were pending, the parliament deemed it unnecessary to keep up the army, more especially as its spirit was plainly observed to be of a dangerous character. On attempting, however, to dismiss this powerful force, the English Commons found that their late servants were become their masters. The troops began to hold something like a parliament in their own camp; a party of them, under Cornet Joyce, seized the king's person, and brought him to Hampton Court. Cromwell, who was at the bottom of their machinations, received from them the chief command; and, at his instigation, they retorted upon the parliament with a demand for the dismissal of the leaders of the Presbyterian party, and a general right of new-modelling

the government and settling the nation. The House of Commons, supported by the city of London, made a bold opposition to these demands, but was obliged to yield to a force which it had no means of resisting. From that time, military violence exercised an almost uncontrolled mastery over England.

Trial and Execution of the King.

207. THE leaders of the army, being anxious to fortify themselves by all possible means against the Presbyterians, opened a negotiation with the king, whose influence such as it now was, they proposed to purchase, by allowing Episcopacy to be the state religion, and leaving him in command of the militia. Charles, however, with characteristic insincerity, carried on at the same time a negotiation with the Presbyterians, which, being discovered by the military chiefs, caused them to break off all terms with him. Under dread of their resentment, he made his escape from Hampton Court (November 11, 1647), and, after an unsuccessful attempt to leave the kingdom, was obliged to put himself under the charge of the governor of Carisbrooke Castle, in the Isle of Wight. Here he entered upon a new negotiation with the House of Commons, to whom he made proposals, and from whom he received proposals in return; all of which were, however, rendered vain by a secret treaty which he at the same time carried on with a moderate party of the Scottish Presbyterians.

208. He finally agreed with the latter party, but under strict secrecy, to give their form of church-government a trial of three years, and yield to them in several other points; they in return binding themselves to unite their strength with the English royalists, for the purpose of putting down the Independent party, now predominant in the English parliament. With some difficulty the Duke of Hamilton and others, who conducted this negotiation, succeeded, by a vote of the Scottish parliament, in raising an army of 12,000 men, with which they invaded England in the summer of 1648. The more zealous of the clergy and people of Scotland protested against an enterprise, which, from its co-operating

with royalists and Episcopalians, and not perfectly ensuring the ascendancy of the Presbyterian Church, appeared to them as neither deserving of success nor likely to command it. As the Scottish army penetrated the western counties, parties of Presbyterians and royalists rose in different parts of England, and for some time the ascendancy of the Independents seemed to be in considerable peril. But before the forces of the enemy could be brought together, Cromwell, with 8000 veteran troops, attacked and overthrew Hamilton at Preston, while Fairfax put down the insurgents in Kent and Essex. Hamilton was himself taken prisoner, and very few of his troops ever returned to their own country.

209. While Cromwell was employed in suppressing this insurrection, and in restoring a friendly government in Scotland, the Presbyterians of the House of Commons, relieved from military intimidation, entered upon a new negotiation with Charles, which was drawing towards what appeared a successful conclusion—though the king secretly designed to deceive them, and to pursue other means for an effectual restoration—when the army returned to London, breathing vengeance against him for this last war, of which they considered him as the author. Finding the parliament in the act of voting his concessions to be satisfactory, Cromwell sent two regiments, under Colonel Pride, who forcibly excluded from it about two hundred members of the Presbyterian party; a transaction remembered by the epithet of *Pride's Purge*. The remainder, being chiefly Independents, were ready to give a colour of law to whatever further measure might be dictated by the military leaders. Convinced of the utter faithlessness of the king, and that, if he continued to live, he would take the earliest opportunity of revenging himself for what had already been done, Cromwell and his associates resolved to put him to death. A High Court of Justice, as it was called, was appointed by ordinance, consisting of a hundred and thirty-three persons, named indifferently from the parliament, the army, and such of the citizens as were known to be well affected to the Independent party. Of this body, sixty-nine sat down in Westminster Hall (January 20, 1649), under the presidency of a barrister, named Bradshaw; another, named Coke, acted as solicitor for the

people of England. Charles, who had been removed to James's Palace, was brought before this court, and accused of having waged and renewed war upon his people, and of having attempted to establish tyranny in place of the limited regal power with which he had been intrusted. He denied the authority of the court, and protested against the whole of the proceedings, but was nevertheless found guilty and condemned to die. On the 30th of **A.D. 1649**. January, he was accordingly beheaded in front of his palace of Whitehall. The people were in general horror-struck at this event; but they were too effectually kept in check by the army, to have any influence in preventing it.

210. Charles I. was a man of slender person, of the middle size, and of a grave and somewhat melancholy cast of countenance. He had not a gracious manner, but possessed considerable dignity. He was sincerely attached to the Church of England, for which he might be considered as a martyr, and he was able to reason very acutely in favour of the divine origin of Episcopacy. The general opinion of modern times respecting his political conduct is unfavourable; though few deny that his death was a most disgraceful as well as imprudent act, on the part of those who brought it about. The worst point of his character was his insincerity; he was prone to using equivocations, with a view to deceive his opponents, and therefore no enemy could depend upon him in negotiation. In private life he was a virtuous man, and he is entitled to much credit for the taste which he displayed in the encouragement of the fine arts. He left three sons—Charles, Prince of Wales; James, Duke of York, afterwards James II.; and Henry, Duke of Gloucester, who died in early life. He also left several daughters, one of whom, named Elizabeth, was treated with harshness by the new government, and died not long after him in prison.

Miscellaneous Circumstances connected with the Reign of Charles I.

211. In the reign of Charles I., the chief literary men were Ben Jonson and Philip Massinger, dramatists, and Samuel

Daniel, Michael Drayton, and William Drummond, poets. The most eminent philosophical character was Dr William Harvey, who discovered the circulation of the blood. Elegant architecture was now for the first time introduced into private buildings. The king patronised the Dutch artists, Rubens and Vandyke, and collected many fine pictures, which were afterwards sold by his enemies. The excise and the tax upon landed property were introduced by the parliament, in order to support the war against the king. When the parliamentary party became triumphant, it suppressed the theatre, which was not again set up till the restoration of monarchy.

The Commonwealth—Subjugation of Ireland and Scotland.

212. **THOUGH** the execution of the king produced a considerable reaction in favour of royalty, the small remaining part of the House of Commons, which got the ridiculous nickname of the *Rump*, now established a republic under the title of the Commonwealth, the executive being trusted, under great limitations, to a council of forty-one members, while in reality Cromwell possessed the chief influence. The House of Peers was voted a grievance, and abolished, and the people were declared to be the legitimate source of all power. Soon after the king's death, the Duke of Hamilton, and a few other of his chief adherents, were executed.

213. During the progress of the civil war, Ireland had been the scene of almost ceaseless contention among the various parties of the King, the English House of Commons, and the Catholics, none of which could effectually suppress the rest. The most remarkable event was a secret agreement which Charles made, in 1646, with the Earl of Glamorgan, to establish the Catholic religion in Ireland, on condition that its partisans should assist him in putting down his enemies in England and Scotland; a transaction which ultimately injured his reputation, without leading to any solid advantage. At the time of his execution, the royalists were in considerable strength under the Duke of Ormond, while Hugh O'Neill was at the head of a large party of Catholics, who were not

indisposed to join the other party, provided they could be assured of the establishment of their religion. While the two parties in union could have easily rescued the country from the English connection, Cromwell landed (August 1649) with 12,000 horse and foot, and, in a series of victories over the scattered forces of his various opponents, succeeded without any great difficulty in asserting the sway of the Commonwealth. One of his most important actions was the



Great Seal of Commonwealth.

capture of Drogheda, where he put the garrison and a number of Catholic priests to the sword, in order to strike terror into the nation.

214. The people of Scotland, who had had scarcely any other object in the civil war than the establishment of their favourite form of worship, and were sincere friends to a limited monarchy, heard of the death of the king with the greatest indignation, and immediately proclaimed his eldest son Charles. Early in 1650, the young monarch, who had

taken refuge in Holland, sent the Marquis of Montrose with a small force to attempt a cavalier insurrection in Scotland ; but, this nobleman being taken and put to death, Charles found it necessary to accede to the views of the Scots respecting the Presbyterian religion, and he was accordingly brought over and put at the head of a considerable army, though under great restrictions. Cromwell, who had now nearly completed the conquest of Ireland, lost **June 1650.** no time in returning to London, and organising an army for the suppression of this new attempt against the Commonwealth.

215. On the 22d of July, he crossed the Tweed, and advanced through a deserted country to Edinburgh, where the Scottish army lay in a fortified camp. Sickness in his army, and the want of provisions, soon after compelled him to retreat ; and the Scottish army, following upon his rear, brought him into a straitened position near Dunbar, where he would soon have been under the necessity of surrendering. In the midst of his perplexities (September 3), he beheld the Scots advancing from the neighbouring heights to give him battle, and, in a transport of joy, exclaimed : 'The Lord hath delivered them into our hands !' The movement was solely the result of interference on the part of the clergy who followed the Scottish camp : the better sense of General Leslie would have waited for the voluntary surrender of his enemy. In the fight which ensued, the veteran troops of Cromwell proved victorious. The Scots fled in a panic, and were cut down in thousands by their pursuers. This gained for Cromwell the possession of the capital and of all the south-east provinces ; but the Covenanters still made a strong appearance at Stirling.

216. Cromwell spent a whole year in the country, vainly endeavouring to bring on another action. During the interval, the Scots crowned the young king at **Jan. 1, 1651.** Scone, part of the ceremony consisting in his acceptance of the Solemn League and Covenant. In the ensuing summer, Cromwell at length contrived to outflank the position of the Scottish army ; but the result was, that Charles led his troops into England without opposition, and made a very threatening advance upon the capital. Ere the

royalists had time to rally around him, Cromwell overtook the king at Worcester, where, after a stoutly-contested fight, he proved completely victorious. Charles, with great difficulty, escaped abroad, and **Sept. 3, 1651.** Scotland, no longer possessed of a military force to defend itself, submitted to the conqueror. All the courts of the Scottish church were suppressed, and the ministers were left no privilege but that of preaching to their flocks. The country was kept in check by a small army under General Monk, and in a short time was declared by proclamation to be united with England. Thus was the Independent party, or rather Cromwell, left without a single armed enemy. All the efforts of the people during twelve years to obtain limitations upon the monarchy, had ended in a military despotism.

The Protectorate.

217. AFTER the country and its dependencies had been thoroughly settled under the new government, the republican leaders resolved upon commencing hostilities against Holland, which, during the civil war, had manifested a decided leaning towards the king, and had recently treated the triumphant party with marked disrespect. In the summer of 1652, the Dutch fleet, under its famous commanders, Van Tromp, De Ruyter, and De Witt, had several encounters with the English ships, under Admirals Blake and Ayscue, without any decided success on either side. But, in the ensuing spring, an action was fought between Blake and Van Tromp, in which the latter lost eleven ships. The Dutch then sued for peace, which the Rump Parliament, for various reasons, were little inclined to grant. Their principal motive for prosecuting the war, was a conviction that it tended to restrict the power of Cromwell, to whom they now paid an unwilling obedience. Cromwell, perceiving their design, proceeded with 300 soldiers to the house, and entering with marks of the most **April 20, 1653.** violent indignation, loaded the members with reproaches for

their robbery and oppression of the public ; then, stamping with his foot, he gave signal for the soldiers to enter, and, addressing himself to the members, ' For shame ! ' said he ; ' get you gone ! give place to honest men ! I tell you you are no longer a parliament ; the Lord has done with you ! ' He then commanded ' that bauble,' meaning the mace, to be taken away, turned out the members, and, locking the door, returned to Whitehall with the key in his pocket. Such was the end of the celebrated Long Parliament, which, after carrying on a successful contest with the sovereign and a large party of his subjects for twelve years, was obliged to succumb to one who had at first been merely a captain in its service.

218. Being still willing to keep up the appearance of a representative government, Cromwell summoned one hundred and forty-four persons in England, Ireland, and Scotland, to assemble as a parliament. These individuals, chiefly remarkable for fanaticism and ignorance, were denominated the *Barebones Parliament*, from the name of one of the members, a leather-seller, whose assumed name, by a ridiculous usage of the age, was Praise-God Barebones. As the assembly obtained no public respect, Cromwell took an early opportunity of dismissing it. His officers then constituted him PROTECTOR of the Commonwealth of Great Britain and Ireland, with most of the prerogatives of the late king.

219. The war against Holland was still carried on with great spirit. In the summer of 1653, two naval actions, in which both parties fought with the utmost bravery, terminated in the triumph of the English, and the complete humiliation of the Dutch, who obtained peace on the condition of paying homage to the English flag, expelling the young king from their dominions, and paying a compensation for certain losses to the East India Company.

220. In a war which he subsequently made against Spain, the fleets of the Protector performed some exploits of not less importance. The respect which he thus gained for the English name throughout Europe, is one of the brightest points in his singular history. But while generally successful abroad, he experienced unceasing difficulties in the management of affairs at home. The authority which he had

usurped did not rest on the affections of the people, but solely on the vigour of the army, by which it had been created. His administration, no doubt, was generally free from practical tyranny. He had, by dis-establishing all churches, left no man cause to complain of undue favour shewn to any faith which he disapproved of. He caused justice, except in some particular cases involving political considerations, to be administered impartially; and he preserved domestic peace. Nevertheless, his power enjoyed so little of public approbation, that, of the various parliaments which he summoned during his protectorate, no one was found so carefully composed of his own creatures as to yield readily to his will: he was obliged to dissolve them all, in succession, after a short trial. He also experienced great difficulty in raising money, and sometimes applied for loans in the city without success. The troubles of his government appear to have steadily increased from the beginning to the end; so that, though strongly based in terror, it could not have probably existed many more years. His own officers could scarcely be kept in subordination, but were constantly plotting a reduction of his authority. The royalists, on the other hand, never ceased to conspire for his destruction; one, named Colonel Titus, went so far as to recommend his assassination, in a pamphlet, entitled 'Killing no Murder,' after reading which, he was never seen again to smile.

221. The last parliament called by Cromwell, was in September 1656; when, besides the Commons, he summoned the few remaining peers, and endeavoured, by ennobling some of his officers, to make up a kind of Upper House. This assembly proved as intractable as its predecessors, and he contracted such a disgust at the very nature of a representative legislature, as to resolve, like Charles I., never to call another. His health finally sunk under the strain necessary to maintain his power, and he died on the 3d September 1658, a day which was thought to be propitious to him, as it was the anniversary of several of his victories. His eldest son Richard, a weak young man, succeeded him as Protector, and was at first treated with all imaginable respect; but he could not long maintain a rule which even his father

had ultimately failed in asserting. He quietly retired out of public view (May 1659), leaving the supreme authority in the hands of the Rump, which had taken the opportunity to re-assemble.

The Restoration.

222. THIS remnant of an old parliament continued in power till the autumn of 1659, when it gave way to a council of the officers who had been in command under Cromwell. The latter government, in its turn, yielded to the Rump, which sat down once more in December. The people, finding themselves made the sport of a few ambitious adventurers, began to long for some more fixed and respectable kind of government. Their efforts for liberty, conducted from the first by armed violence, had ended in a government of which violence was the only principle; and they contracted an unjust disrespect for freedom, and everything relating thereto, from the effects of their own imprudent ways of seeking it.

223. At this crisis, General Monk, commander of the forces in Scotland, conceived the design of settling the nation. He left Scotland (January 1, 1660), with a considerable army; and though he kept his thoughts scrupulously to himself, all men bent their eyes upon him, as a person destined to realise their hopes. He reached London (February 3), and was received with feigned respect by the Rump. Some resistance was attempted by Lambert, one of Cromwell's officers, but in vain. Ere long, Monk was able to procure the restoration of the members who had been excluded from parliament by Cromwell; who, being a majority, gave an immediate ascendancy to anti-republican views. As soon as this was effected, an act was passed for calling a new and freely-elected parliament; after which, the existing assembly immediately dissolved itself.

224. The new parliament, which met on the 25th of April, proved to be chiefly composed of cavaliers and Presbyterians, men agreeing in their attachment to monarchy, though differing in many other views. At first they proceeded with great caution; for such terror had been inspired by the late military tyrannies, that, even when the breathings of almost

all men were evidently in favour of a restoration of the monarchy, they could hardly trust themselves to take any steps towards that object. At length General Monk informed them that a messenger was in waiting with dispatches from the king, and it was instantly resolved to receive him. The dispatches were found to contain a proposal for the king's restoration to power, with an offer of forgiveness for all past offences which the parliament itself might not think fit for punishment, and a toleration to all tender consciences in the matter of religion. The documents were read with shouts of applause, and money immediately voted for the purpose of bringing over the royal family. The members were so glad to escape from the disorders of the last few years, that they never thought of making any definite arrangement with the king as to the extent of his prerogative. They, and the nation in general, seemed to think that there could be no safety except in that almost absolute rule which they had begun to dispute twenty years before. CHARLES THE SECOND arrived in London on the 29th of May, his A.D. 1660. thirtieth birthday, and was received with such a frenzy of joy by all ranks of people, that he could not help thinking it his own fault, as he said, that he had been so long separated from them.

225. One of the first measures of the new monarch was the passing of a bill of indemnity, by which all persons concerned in the late popular movements were pardoned, excepting a few who had been prominently concerned in bringing the king to the block. Harrison, Scrope, and a few other regicides, were tried and executed; and the bodies of Cromwell, Ireton, and Bradshaw, were raised from the grave, and exhibited upon gibbets. In Scotland only three persons suffered—the Marquis of Argyle, Johnston of Warriston, and Mr Guthry, a clergyman; it was considered remarkable, that the marquis had placed the crown upon the king's head at Scone in the year 1651. Excepting in these acts, the king shewed no desire of revenging the death of his father, or his own exclusion from the throne. The parliament which called him home was constituted a legal one by his own ratification of an act for that purpose. In the settlement of other matters, it seemed the prevailing wish that all the

institutions of the country should be made as nearly what they were before the civil war as possible. Thus, the Episcopal Church was established both in England and in Scotland, though not without causing about a third of the clergy in both countries to resign their charges. Immediately before the Restoration, the Scottish clergy had entered into a treaty with the king, whom they induced to promise that he would support religion as by law established. But when seated on the throne, he easily found means for evading this obligation—Presbyterianism being, in his opinion, a religion ‘unfit for a gentleman.’ The parliament of Scotland exceeded that of England in loyalty. It declared the power of the king to be hereditary, divine, and indefeasible, and asserted his uncontrolled right to the lives and possessions of his subjects. The change of political feeling was not more remarkable than what took place in manners. The stern and enthusiastic piety which prevailed during the civil war, was now treated with ridicule, and the most of the people vied with each other in that licentious riot and drunkenness which is condemned by all systems of faith. The nation, in fact, seemed intoxicated with the safety which they supposed themselves to have at length gained, in a restoration to the imperfect freedom they enjoyed before the civil war.

Act of Settlement in Ireland.

226. IRELAND, which, during the Protectorate, had been managed by Henry, a younger son of Cromwell, acceded to the Restoration with as much readiness as any other part of the British dominions. One of the earliest measures of the new government was to restore to the Catholics some portions of the lands of which they had been deprived by Cromwell, and to settle the state of property in Ireland generally. For this purpose, two measures were passed, called the Act of Settlement and the Act of Explanation. From the suspected bias of the king towards their religion, the Catholics hoped that very favourable terms would be extended to them; but the English Protestant party was, as usual, too powerful for them, and, while about three thousand were disappointed of

all benefit from the acts, on account of their alleged accession to the Rebellion before it had become a royalist one, the rest received only a limited portion of their former possessions. During the remainder of the reign of Charles II., the Catholics made many unsuccessful attempts to procure a repeal of the Act of Settlement.

Dutch War.

227. THOUGH Charles had been restored with the approbation of a very large portion of his subjects, his most zealous friends were the royalists and Episcopalians; hence he almost immediately subsided into the character of a party ruler. It was deemed necessary that he should maintain an armed force for the protection of his person, and to keep down popular disturbances. He therefore caused several horse regiments to be embodied under the name of Life Guards, being chiefly composed of royalist gentlemen upon whom a perfect dependence could be placed; and he afterwards added two or three foot regiments, the whole amounting to about 5000 men. The king paid these troops chiefly out of the money allowed for his own support, for parliament did not sanction his keeping up such a force, and the nation generally beheld it with suspicion. This was the commencement of a *standing army* in England.

228. Personally indolent, dissolute, and deficient in conscientiousness, and surrounded almost exclusively by the ministers of the basest pleasures, Charles was not qualified to retain the sincere respect of a people whose habitual character is grave and virtuous. His extravagant expenditure soon cooled the affections of his parliament, and he began to find considerable difficulties in obtaining money. To relieve himself from this embarrassment, he accepted £40,000 from the French king for Dunkirk, a French port which had been acquired by Cromwell. For the same purpose, he married a Portuguese princess of the Catholic religion, who possessed a dowry of half a million. He also commenced (1664) a war against Holland, for apparently

no better reason than that, in applying the parliamentary subsidies necessary for keeping up hostilities, he might have an opportunity of converting part of the money to his own personal use.

229. This Dutch war was chiefly conducted by sea. On the 3d of June 1665, an English fleet of one hundred and fourteen sail met a Dutch one which numbered just one ship less, near Lowestoffe, and, after an obstinate fight, gained a complete victory, depriving the enemy of eighteen vessels, and compelling the rest to take refuge on their own coast. The commander on this occasion was the Duke of York, the king's younger brother; a man of greater application and more steady principles, but who soon after became unpopular, in consequence of his avowing himself a Catholic.

230. Some other well-contested actions took place at sea, and the English, upon the whole, confirmed their naval supremacy. Owing, however, to a failure of the supplies, the king was obliged to lay up his best vessels in ordinary, and to send only an inferior force to sea. The Dutch took advantage of this occurrence to send a fleet up the Thames, which, meeting with no adequate resistance, **June 11, 1667.** threatened to lay the capital in ruins and destroy its shipping. Fortunately, the Dutch admiral did not think it expedient to make this attempt, but retired with the ebb of the tide, after having sunk and burnt nearly twenty vessels, and done much other damage. The king, finding himself rather impoverished than enriched by the war, soon after concluded a peace.

Plague and Fire of London.

231. In the meantime, two extraordinary calamities had befallen the metropolis. In the summer of 1665, London was visited by a plague, which swept off about 100,000 people, and did not experience any abatement till the approach of cold weather. On this occasion, the city presented a wide and heart-rending scene of misery and desolation. Rows of houses stood tenantless, and open to the

winds ; the chief thoroughfares were overgrown with grass. The few individuals who ventured abroad, walked in the middle of the streets, and, when they met, declined on opposite sides, to avoid the contact of each other. At one moment were heard the ravings of delirium, or the wail of sorrow, from the infected dwelling ; at another, the merry song or careless laugh from the tavern, where men were seeking to drown in debauchery all sense of their awful situation. Since 1665, the plague has not again occurred in London, or in any other part of the kingdom.

232. The second calamity was a conflagration, which commenced on the night of Sunday the 2d of September 1666, in the eastern and more crowded part of the city. The direction and violence of the wind, the combustible nature of the houses, and the defective arrangements of that age for extinguishing fires, combined to favour the progress of the flames, which raged for several days, and burnt all that part of the city which lay between the Tower and the Temple. By this calamity, 13,200 houses and 89 churches, covering in all 430 acres of ground, were destroyed. The flame at one time formed a column a mile in diameter, and seemed to mingle with the clouds. It rendered the night as clear as day for ten miles around the city, and is said to have produced an effect upon the sky which was observed on the borders of Scotland. It had one good effect, in causing the streets to be formed much wider than before, by which the city was rendered more healthy. By the populace, this fire was believed to have been the work of the Catholics, and a tall pillar, with an inscription to that effect, was reared in the city, as a monument of the calamity. This pillar with its inscription still exists ; but the fire is now believed to have been occasioned purely by accident.

The Persecution in Scotland.

233. MEANWHILE, in Scotland great dissatisfaction had been occasioned by the imposition of Episcopacy upon the church, and advantage had been taken of various acts of resistance on the part of the clergy and people, to visit both with measures

of considerable severity. Heavy fines were imposed upon such as failed to attend the ministrations of the established clergy, on the suspicion that, when not at church, they were hearing the ejected clergymen in some private place. A small standing army was kept up to enforce the fines, and, till these were paid, free quarters were exacted for the soldiers. Tired of suffering, a few of the peasantry of Galloway rose in rebellion, and, advancing through the disaffected districts of Ayrshire and Lanarkshire, gradually assumed a threatening appearance. An unfortunate movement towards Edinburgh, where they expected accessions, thinned their numbers, and they were overpowered by General Dalyell at the Pentland Hills. Thirty-four of the prisoners were executed as rebels, chiefly at the instigation of Sharpe, Archbishop of St Andrews, who, with the other prelates, was zealous in behalf of the government. Besides these sufferers, fifty persons, including fifteen clergymen, forfeited lands and goods.

234. Some attempts were now made, at the desire of the king, to induce the ejected clergy to connect themselves with the church ; but very few took advantage of a leniency which they believed would have been extended also to Catholics, and which involved their acknowledgment of the king's supremacy in spiritual affairs. About the year 1670, some divines began to hold conventicles in secluded parts of the country, to which the country people used to come with arms. At these places, a far warmer kind of devotion was felt, than could be experienced under tamer circumstances ; and, as may be supposed, such meetings were not calculated to diffuse or foster a sentiment of loyalty. Sensible of this, the government obtained an act, imposing very severe fines on all who should preach or listen at conventicles ; but without producing any effect. The penalties with which they were threatened, seemed only to make the people more attached to their peculiar modes of worship and church-government.

The Triple Alliance—The French Alliance.

235. THE kingdom of France was at this period, under

Louis XIV., rising into a degree of power and wealth which it had never before known. Louis had some claims through his wife upon the Netherlands (since called Belgium), which were then part of the Spanish dominions. He accordingly endeavoured to possess himself of that country by force of arms. A jealousy of his increasing power, and of the Catholic religion professed by his people, made the English desirous that his aggressions should be restrained. To gratify them, Charles entered into an alliance with Holland and Sweden, for the purpose of checking the progress of the French king. In this object he was completely successful, and consequently he became very popular. The parliament, however, having disappointed him of supplies, he soon after entirely changed his policy, and, with the assistance of five abandoned ministers, Clifford, Ashley, Buckingham, Arlington, and Lauderdale, who were called the CABAL, from the initials of their names forming that word, resolved to render himself, if possible, independent of parliament; in other words, an absolute prince. In consideration of a large bribe from Louis, he agreed to join France in a war against Holland, with the view of putting an end to that example of a Protestant republic.

236. War was accordingly declared in March 1672, and the naval force of England was employed in meeting that of the Dutch by sea; while Louis led a powerful army across the Rhine, and in a very short time had nearly reduced the whole of the Seven Provinces. In this emergency, the Dutch could only save themselves from absolute ruin by laying a great part of their country under water. The English, who had not entered heartily into this war, soon began to be alarmed for the fate of Holland, which was almost their only support against the dread of Popery; and though forbidden, under severe penalties, to censure the government measures, they soon contrived to exhibit so much dissatisfaction, as to render a change of policy unavoidable.

237. The king found it necessary to assemble his parliament (February 1673), and it was no sooner met, than it passed some acts highly unfavourable to his designs. Among these was the famous Test Act, so called because it enjoined the imposition of a religious oath upon all persons about to enter the public service, the design being to exclude the

Catholics from office. Above all things, the House of Commons declared that it would grant no more supplies for the Dutch war. The king resolved to prorogue the assembly ; but before he could do so, they voted the alliance with France, and several of his ministers, to be *grievances*. Charles, who, in wishing to be absolute, had been inspired by no other motive than a desire of ease, now saw there was a better chance of his favourite indulgence in giving way to his subjects than in any other course ; and he at once abandoned all his former measures, and concluded a separate peace with Holland. That country was now beginning, under the conduct of the Prince of Orange, to make a good defence against the French, which it was the better enabled to do by obtaining the friendship of Germany and Spain. In the year 1678, after a war, which, without any decisive victories, will ever reflect lustre upon Holland, a peace was concluded. The Prince of Orange, in the previous year, had married the Princess Mary, eldest daughter of the Duke of York, and educated in the reformed faith—an alliance which pleased the English, from its strengthening the Protestant interest, and which was destined, some years after, to bring about important results.

Character of the Court.

238. DURING the whole of this reign, the corruptness of the court was very great ; but it was, in some measure, the protection of the public. Charles spent vast sums in debauchery, and thus made himself more dependent on his Commons than he would otherwise have been. Many of the Commons were exceedingly corrupt, and all kinds of evil methods were adopted to render them more so. Bribes were distributed among them, and they were frequently *closeted* ; that is, brought into the presence of the king individually, and personally solicited for votes. Still a large party maintained its purity and independence, and long kept a majority against the court. The contrast between the manners of the court and of the country, which was first observable in the reign of James I., was very remarkable in that of Charles II. Most of the men who surrounded the throne, were, like the

monarch, profligate in their lives, and totally careless of the public interest. The chief political influence was wielded by abandoned women. None of the courtiers would attend meetings, even in the most awful emergencies, unless they were to be regaled by buffoonery. An annalist of the period relates, that, on the night when all London was alarmed by the sound of the Dutch cannon at the very entrance of the city, the king supped with one of his mistresses and several courtiers, and that they employed themselves during the evening in hunting a moth. Many of those who had witnessed the more serious doings of the court of Cromwell, still lived to lament these follies, and they drew a line of broad distinction between themselves and the court.

The Popish Plot.

239. For a century past, one of the grand moving-springs of the public conduct had been a strong detestation and dread of the adherents of the Romish church. This sentiment did not arise from any fear of the numbers or political strength of the Catholics, for they were but a small minority of the nation, but from a belief, generally entertained, that the Catholics scrupled at no treachery or cruelty which might seem favourable to the re-establishment of their religion. The popular notions, newly inflamed by the avowed Catholicism of the Duke of York, heir-presumptive to the crown, and by the late intrigues of the king with France, were encouraged by a party who wished to impose restrictions upon the royal prerogative, and to exclude the duke from the succession. In 1678, an account of a plot, supposed to have been formed by the Papists, for burning London, massacring the Protestants, and destroying the king and the Protestant religion, was circulated by one Kirby, a chemist; Tong, a weak, credulous person; and Titus Oates, one of the most abandoned miscreants that ever appeared in history. The circumstances attending this pretended discovery were so unlike reality, that they never could have been for a moment listened to, if the nation had not been in a state of hallucination.

240. Nevertheless, the Popish Plot, as it was called, was

not only generally believed by the people, but also by the parliament and the court ; and such was the extent of the excitement, that a general massacre of the Catholics was apprehended. Even the king, though incredulous, was obliged to give way to the prevailing delusion. Meanwhile, letters were seized, which discovered that the Duke of York carried on a correspondence with France, in opposition to the religion and interests of his country. A correspondence of the king's minister, Danby, which involved the king in the disgrace of similar machinations, was detected ; and, to crown the whole, Sir Edmondsbury Godfrey, the

Oct. 17, 1678. magistrate who first gave publicity to the plot, was found in the fields dead, with his own sword stuck through his body. For two years this horrible delusion reigned over the public mind, and under its influence many innocent Catholics were condemned to death. At length the execution of a venerable nobleman, the Viscount Stafford, excited a general sensation of pity, and the people gradually saw and repented of the excesses which they had committed.

The Habeas Corpus Act—The Exclusion Bill.

241. At this period, the House of Commons appears for the first time formally separated into the two parties who have ever since been recognised in it. The appellation *Tory*, applied to the friends of the court, was originally brought from Ireland, where the word *Toree* (give me), used by a cavalier banditti, had gradually been extended to the whole of the cavalier or royalist party. The term *Whig*, which fell to the lot of the Opposition, is said to have originated in Scotland, being first applied to the sterner portion of the Presbyterian party in the western counties. It is stated by a contemporary historian, that the west-country people who annually came to Leith for corn, used the word *whiggam* in driving their horses ; and this word was in time applied to themselves. The term *whiggam*, or for brevity *whig*, being thus at first used in the east of Scotland during the civil war, in reference to the more zealously religious people of the west, was gradually extended to the whole British party who

opposed the measures of the court, and the claims of the Episcopal church.

242. The parliament having impeached Danby, the king dissolved it, and called another. The new assembly, which met in October 1679, proved equally uncontrollable as the last. It passed, by a majority of seventy-nine, a bill excluding the Duke of York from the succession; declared the king's guards and standing army illegal; and passed the *Habeas Corpus* act, which, limiting the time between the apprehension of a supposed criminal and his trial, rendered it impossible for this or any future sovereign to keep individuals in prison at his pleasure, as had formerly been done. The last measure is still justly looked upon as the great bulwark of personal liberty in Britain. Though the bill for excluding the Duke of York was thrown out by the Upper House, that prince found it necessary to evade the popular odium, first by retiring to Brussels, and afterwards to Scotland. At the same time, the Duke of Monmouth, eldest natural son of the king, and believed by many to be legitimate, began to be regarded by the Presbyterians and liberal party in general as a preferable heir to the crown. In these agitations, the populace of London was particularly active; and it was at this period that the term *mob* was first used. The word was an abbreviation of *mobile vulgus*, a phrase signifying 'the unsteady vulgar,' which the court contemptuously applied to the crowds which daily assembled.

Persecution in Scotland.

243. THE persecution in Scotland for field-meetings was so severe, that, before the year 1678, it was supposed that 17,000 persons had suffered by it, in fine, imprisonment, and death. A bond was attempted to be imposed upon the people, in which conventicles were renounced; and, to enforce it in the west country, an army of 10,000 Highlanders was permitted to range there at free quarters. Nothing, it was found, could break the resolution of the people to adhere to their favourite modes of worship; on the contrary, all these severe measures inspired a deep resentment against the govern-

ment, as well as the prelates. On the 2d of May 1679, as Archbishop Sharpe was going in his coach to St Andrews, he was beset by a body of desperate men, among whom were Balfour of Burleigh and Hackstoun of Rathillet, who cruelly slew him. An insurrection of the west-country conventicles immediately followed, and a party of dragoons sent against them, under Captain Graham of Claverhouse, was gallantly repulsed at Loudon Hill. In a brief space, about five thousand men were found in arms against the state, among whom were many of the lesser gentry, the command being assumed by a gentleman named Hamilton. The rebellion was considered so formidable, that the Duke of Monmouth was sent down to head the troops for its suppression. He

June 22, 1679. found them posted advantageously at Bothwell Bridge; but divisions on certain religious and political points unfitted them for making a good resistance. After defending the bridge for a while, they turned in a panic, and fled. Three hundred were killed in the pursuit, and twelve hundred taken prisoners.

244. This unfortunate insurrection, being followed up by fresh severities, effectually subdued all disposition to resistance, except in a small party of the nonconformists, whose principles were of an unusually enthusiastic kind. Twenty armed men, professing these principles, were assailed by a detachment of dragoons, in Airmoss (1680), when their leader Cameron, a clergyman, and several others, were killed, after a desperate resistance. Cargill, another preacher of this extreme sect, soon after held a conventicle at Torwood, near Stirling, where he formally excommunicated the king, his brother, and ministers. These proceedings had an injurious effect, in as far as they gave occasion for fresh severities against the whole party; but they originated in such pure and pious motives, and brought down such calamities upon the unshrinking heads of those concerned in them, that they have ever since been regarded in Scotland with great respect.

245. The more uncompromising party soon after arranged themselves into what they called a Secret Society, and (12th January 1682) openly appeared at Lanark, where they published a declaration of their principles, among which

a renunciation of all allegiance to Charles II. was the most remarkable. The dispute between the government and its subjects had now arrived at such an extremity, that individuals were shot in the fields, by military law, if they merely refused to acknowledge the royal authority. The most of the people, unable or unwilling to resist, were therefore obliged to give an external reverence to the church established amongst them, or at least to the irregular clergy, who, by submissions odious to the community, had received what was called an *indulgence* or permission to preach. A great disposition prevailed to emigrate to the American colonies, as the only means of escaping the oppressive restraints which prevailed at home.

The King becomes Absolute—The Rye-House Plot.

246. IN the meantime, an extraordinary revolution took place in England. About the time that popular feeling was recovering from the mania respecting the Popish Plot, the House of Commons had shewn stronger symptoms than ever of a determination to effect the exclusion of the Duke of York from the throne. The time was unfortunate, for men were beginning to suspect that they had been deceived in many of their surmises about danger from the Catholics. The object, moreover, trenched upon a principle which many men in that age deemed sacred—that of hereditary succession; nor was it possible to blame the king for opposing a measure so unfavourable to the interests of his nearest blood relation. In fact, the liberal party of the House of Commons pushed their favourite measure to such a point, as to cause a reaction of the public mind against their views.

247. The king, having called a new parliament to meet at Oxford, resolved, in the event of its not proving more tractable, to take advantage of the popular feeling, dissolve the assembly, and never call another. It met on the 21st of March 1681, and the whigs soon shewed that the Exclusion Bill was still uppermost in their minds. The king permitted one of his ministers to propose, that, at his death,

the Princess of Orange should reign as regent, and the new king be for ever banished five hundred miles from his dominions. To this concession, which now seems much greater than could have reasonably been expected, they would not listen for a moment. Charles then dissolved the parliament as utterly intractable, and, as he expected, he was generally applauded for the act. Popular feeling had now taken a turn in favour of royalty; and the representative branch of the legislature, long regarded with veneration by the English, was permitted to go down without a struggle. The king henceforth ruled entirely without control, being secretly supplied with money by France, in consideration of his non-interference with the conquests of that country. The liberal party was completely baffled and broken, and all its power as a check upon the royal measures lost, merely through inadvertency to the state of public feeling.

248. A fit of slavishness now befell the English nation, as remarkable in its extent as the late fury against the court and the Catholics. Supported by this mood of the people, Charles caused all the corporations in the kingdom to give up their old charters, and accept of new ones, by which he became all-powerful over the elections of magistrates, and, consequently, over those of parliamentary representatives, should ever another election of that kind take place. The leaders of the late majority in parliament, comprising the Duke of Monmouth, Lord Russell (son of the Earl of Bedford), the Earl of Essex, Lord Howard, the famous Algernon Sydney, and John Hampden, grandson of the patriot who first resisted Charles I., being reduced to absolute despair, formed a project for raising an insurrection in London, to be supported by one in the west of England, and another under the Earl of Argyle in Scotland, and the object of which should be confined to a melioration of the government. They were betrayed by an associate named Rumsay, and implicated, by a train of unfortunate circumstances, in a plot for assassinating the king (styled the Rye-house Plot), of which they were perfectly innocent. By the execution of Russell and Sydney, and some other severities, the triumph

of the king might be considered as completed. After having been an absolute sovereign for nearly four years, he died professing himself at the last **Feb. 6, 1685.** to be a Catholic, and was succeeded by the Duke of York.

249. Charles II. was a prince of a gay and cheerful disposition, and so noted a sayer of witty things, and so addicted to humorous amusements, that he was called 'the Merry Monarch.' His wit, shrewdness, and good-humour, form the best side of his character. On the other side, we find a deficiency of almost every active virtue and of all steady principle. He never allowed any duty of his station, or any claim upon his justice or clemency, to interfere with his own interests, or even to disturb him in his indolent and vicious pleasures. Neglecting his wife, who never had any children, he spent most of his time with his various mistresses, who openly lived at court, and were even received by the queen. Of these ladies, the most remarkable were Louisa Querouaille, whom he created Duchess of Portsmouth, and Barbara Villiers, whom he made Duchess of Cleveland. Six sons of the king by his mistresses were made dukes, and five of these were the progenitors of families in the English nobility.

250. During the reign of Charles II., the nation advanced considerably in the arts of navigation and commerce; and the manufactures of brass, glass, silk, hats, and paper were established. The Post-Office, set up during the Commonwealth as a means of raising money, was advanced in this reign, and the penny-post was now begun in London by a private person. Roads were greatly improved, and stage-coach travelling was commenced, though not carried to any great extent. During this reign, tea, coffee, and chocolate, which have had a great effect in improving and softening manners, were first introduced. In 1660, the Royal Society was established in London, for the cultivation of natural science, mathematics, and all useful knowledge. The science of astronomy was greatly advanced by the investigations of Flamsteed and Halley. But the greatest contribution to science was made by Sir Isaac Newton, whose Principles of Natural Philosophy were published in 1687; in this work,

the true theory of planetary motions was first explained, in reference to the principle of gravitation. Amongst the literary men of the period, the first place is to be assigned to John Milton, author of the *Paradise Lost* and other poems: Samuel Butler shines as a humorous and satirical poet, and Edmund Waller as a lyricist. Amongst divines, the highest names connected with the church are those of Jeremy Taylor and Isaac Barrow; while the highest among the nonconformists are those of Richard Baxter and John Bunyan. The theatre, which had been suppressed during the Commonwealth, was revived in this reign; but the drama exhibited less talent and more licentiousness than it did in the previous reigns. Female characters, which had formerly been acted by men, were now for the first time performed by females.

Accession of James II. : 1685.

251. CHARLES II., with all his faults, had conducted himself towards his subjects with so much personal cordiality, and had so well calculated his ground before making any aggressions upon popular liberty, that he might probably have pursued his arbitrary career for many years longer. But his brother James, though much more respectable as a man, more industrious, and more sincere, wanted entirely the easiness of carriage, pleasantry, and penetration, which were the grounds of the late king's popularity and success. He was, moreover, a declared Catholic, and inspired by an ardent desire of reforming the nation back into that faith. These circumstances, though they at first seemed to threaten very bad consequences, afterwards proved the means of saving the country from the complete establishment of a despotic government.

252. James began his reign by declaring before the Privy Council his intention to govern solely by the
A.D. 1685. laws, and to maintain the existing church; and such was the confidence in his sincerity, that he soon became very popular. Addresses poured in upon him from all quarters, professing the most abject devotion to his person.

He called a parliament, in order to obtain money, and, by reason of the control which the crown had acquired over the boroughs, he was not disappointed in his wishes. The House of Commons voted him an ample revenue, and expressed the greatest servility towards him in all things. The doctrines of passive obedience, and the divine right of the sovereign, were now openly preached. The University of Oxford promulgated an elaborate declaration of passive obedience to rulers, which they declared to be 'clear, absolute, and without any exception of any state or order of men.' The Scottish parliament acknowledged the king's *sacred, supreme, and absolute authority*, which they offered to support with their lives and fortunes. In short, it seemed as if the civil liberties of the British people were now to be surrendered to the crown, as a possession which it was no longer safe or expedient to retain.

Expeditions of Monmouth and Argyle.

253. THE remains of the Whig party still existed, though in exile, and there were some districts of the country where they were supposed to have considerable influence. The Duke of Monmouth and the Earl of Argyle (the latter of whom had been condemned to death in Scotland, for adding a qualification to the test-oath, but had escaped), met in Holland, and projected two separate invasions, for the purpose of expelling King James. The **June 1685.** former soon after landed in the west of England with a small retinue, and quickly found himself at the head of 5000 persons, though irregularly armed. At several places he caused himself to be proclaimed king, which offended many of his principal adherents, as inconsistent with his previous engagements. Upon the whole, his conduct was not energetic enough for the management of such an enterprise. Having attacked the king's troops near Bridgewater, his infantry fought with some spirit, but, being deserted by the cavalry, and by the duke himself, were obliged to give way. Monmouth himself was taken and executed (July 15, 1685). Many of his followers were hanged without form of trial by the royal troops, and others were afterwards put to death,

with hardly any more formality, by the celebrated Chief-Justice Jeffreys, whom the king sent down with a commission to try the offenders. The butchery of several hundred men of low condition, who were unable of themselves to do any harm to the government, was looked upon as a most unjustifiable piece of cruelty, even if it had been legally done; and the principal blame was popularly ascribed to the king.

254. The Earl of Argyle sailed in May with a corresponding expedition, and landed in that part of the West Highlands which owned his own baronial authority. Unfortunately for him, the government had received warning, and seized all the gentlemen of his clan, upon whom he had chiefly depended. He nevertheless raised between two and three thousand men, and made a timid advance to Glasgow, in the expectation of being joined by the persecuted Presbyterians of that part of the country. Being surrounded on the march by various parties of troops, he dispersed his army, and sought to escape in disguise, but was taken, brought to Edinburgh, and executed (June 30). Thus terminated the last effort made by the Whig party to check the despotic sway of the Stuarts.

Arbitrary Measures of the King.

255. ENCOURAGED by his successes, James conceived that he might safely begin the process of changing the established religion of the country. On the plea of his supremacy over the church, he took the liberty of dispensing with the test-oath in favour of some Catholic officers, and thus broke an act which was looked upon, under existing circumstances, as the chief safeguard of the Protestant faith. His parliament, servile as it was in temporal matters, took the alarm at this spiritual danger, and gave the king so effectual a resistance, that he resorted to a dissolution. Transactions exactly similar took place in Scotland.

256. Heedless of these symptoms, he proclaimed a universal toleration, for the purpose of relieving the Catholics, and thus assumed the unconstitutional right of dispensing with acts of parliament. The nation was thrown by this measure, and by the numerous promotions of Roman Catholics, into

a state of great alarm; even the clergy, who had been so eager to preach an implicit obedience to the royal will, began to see that it might be productive of mischief. When James commanded that his proclamation of toleration should be read in every pulpit in the country, only two hundred of the clergy obeyed. The archbishop of Canterbury and six of the bishops joined in a respectful petition against the order, but the king declared that document to be a seditious libel, and threw the petitioners into the Tower. In June 1688, they were tried in Westminster Hall, and, to the infinite joy of the nation, acquitted.

257. Blinded by religious zeal, the king proceeded on his fatal course. In defiance of the law, he held open intercourse with the Pope, for the restoration of Britain to the bosom of the Romish church. He called Catholic lords to the Privy Council, and even placed some in the cabinet. Chapels, by his instigation, were everywhere built, and monks and priests went openly about his palace. A court of high commission—a cruel instrument of power under Charles I.—was erected, and before this every clerical person who gave any offence to the king was summoned. He also excited great indignation, by violently thrusting a Catholic upon Magdalen College, at Oxford, as its head, and expelling the members for their resistance to his will. Public feeling was wound to the highest pitch of excitement by the queen being delivered (June 10, 1688) of a son, who might be expected to perpetuate the Catholic religion in the country, and whom many suspected to be a supposititious child, brought forward solely for that purpose.

General Disaffection.

258. THE disaffection produced by these circumstances extended to every class of the king's subjects, except the small body of Roman Catholics, many of whom could not help regarding the royal measures as imprudent. The Tories were enraged at the ruin threatened to the Church of England, which they regarded as the grand support of conservative principles in the empire. The Whigs, who had already made many strenuous efforts to exclude or expel the king, were now

more inflamed against him than ever. The clergy, a popular and influential body, were indignant at the injuries inflicted upon their church ; and even the dissenters, though comprehended in the general toleration, saw too clearly through its motive, and were too well convinced of the illegality of its manner, and of the danger of its object, as affecting the Protestant faith, to be exempted from the general sentiment. But for the birth of the Prince of Wales, the people at large might have been contented to wait for the relief which was to be expected, after the death of the king, from the succession of the Princess of Orange, who was a Protestant and united to the chief military defender of that interest in Europe. But this hope was now shut out, and it was necessary to resolve upon some decisive measures for the safety of the national religion.

Prince of Orange called over.

259. IN this crisis, some of the principal nobility and gentry, with a few clergymen, united in a secret address to the Prince of Orange, calling upon **June 1688.** him to come over with an armed force, and aid them in protecting their faith and liberties. This prince, who feared that England would soon be joined to France against the few remaining Protestant powers, and also that his prospects of the succession in that country, as nephew and son-in-law of the king,* were endangered, listened readily to this call, and immediately collected a large fleet and army, comprising many individuals, natives of both Scotland and England, who had fled from the severe government of the Stuart princes. The preparations for the expedition were conducted with great secrecy, and James was partly blinded to them, by a rumour that their only object was to frighten him into a closer connection with France, in order to make him odious to his subjects. When he was at length assured by his minister

* The mother of the prince was Mary Stuart, eldest daughter of Charles I., and sister of James II. Failing the infant Prince of Wales, his own wife, and the Princess Anne, the two daughters of the king, he was the heir of the British crown.

in Holland that he might immediately expect a formidable invasion, he grew pale, and dropped the letter from his hands. He now saw the necessity of providing for his own safety, as well as of endeavouring to regain the affections of his people. He immediately ordered his fleet to be assembled, and his army to be recruited with new levies. He sent for troops from Scotland and Ireland ; and, to his no small satisfaction, found his land-forces amount to 40,000 men.

260. Nor was the king less liberal of his civil concessions than vigorous in his military preparations. He had already issued writs for the meeting of parliament on the 27th of the ensuing November. He followed these with a declaration, that it was his fixed purpose to endeavour to establish the legal settlement of a universal liberty of conscience for all his subjects ; that he had resolved to preserve inviolate the Church of England ; and he protested that it was his intention that Roman Catholics should remain incapable of sitting in the House of Commons. He gave orders to the Lord Chancellor, and the lords-lieutenant of the several counties, to replace all the deputy-lieutenants and justices who had been deprived of their commissions for their adherence to the test and the penal laws against nonconformists : he restored the charter of London, and the charters of all the corporations in the kingdom : he annulled the court of ecclesiastical commission : he reinstated the expelled president and fellows of Magdalen College : and he invited again to his councils all the bishops whom he had so lately persecuted and insulted, assuring them that he was ready to do whatever they should think necessary for the security of the Protestant religion and the civil rights of his subjects.

261. But these concessions, though important in themselves, were made too late to be allowed much merit ; and being generally supposed to be extorted by fear, they were coldly received by the nation. Nor did the conduct of the king, in other respects, correspond with such conciliating measures. On a rumour that the fleet of the Prince of Orange had been put back by a tempest, he recalled the writs for the meeting of parliament, without issuing any new ones ; a step which created universal suspicion of his sincerity, and a belief that all his concessions were no more than temporary

expedients. He shewed, however, a laudable zeal for his own honour, in obtaining a legal proof of the birth of the Prince of Wales.

The Revolution.

262. ON the 19th of October, the expedition of the Prince of Orange sailed from the Brille and from Helvoetsluys, consisting of 50 ships-of-war, 25 frigates, 25 fire-ships, and 500 transports, containing 15,000 land-troops. A storm occasioned some damage and delay; but he soon put to sea again, and proceeded with a fair wind along the British Channel, exhibiting from his own vessel a flag, on which were inscribed the words, 'THE PROTESTANT RELIGION AND THE LIBERTIES OF ENGLAND,' with the apposite motto of his family, '*Je Maintiendrai*'—I will maintain. As he passed between Dover and Calais, his armament was visible to crowds of spectators on both shores, whose feelings were much excited at once by its appearance and its well-known purpose. The English fleet being detained at Harwich by the same wind which was so favourable to the prince, he landed without opposition at Torbay, and immediately proceeded to circulate a manifesto, declaring the grievances of the kingdom, and promising, with the support of the people, to redress them.

Nov. 5, 1688.

263. At the first, there seemed some reason to fear that the prince would not meet with adequate support. On his march to Exeter, and for eight days after arriving there, he was not joined by any person of consequence. The nation, however, soon became alive to the necessity of giving him encouragement. The gentry of Devon and Somersetshires formed an association in his behalf. The Earls of Bedford and Abingdon, with other persons of distinction, repaired to his quarters at Exeter. Lord Delamere took arms in Cheshire; the city of York was seized by the Earl of Danby; the Earl of Bath, governor of Plymouth, declared for the prince; and the Earl of Devonshire made a like declaration in Derby. Every day discovered some new instance of that general confederacy into which the nation had entered against the measures of the king. But the most dangerous

symptom, and that which rendered his affairs desperate, was the defection of the army. Many of the principal officers were inspired with the prevailing spirit of the nation, and disposed to prefer the interests of their country to their duty to their sovereign.

264. The example of desertion was set by Lord Colchester, son of the Earl of Rivers, and by Lord Cornbury, son of the Earl of Clarendon. The king had arrived at Salisbury, the head-quarters of his army, when he received this alarming intelligence; but as the soldiers in general seemed firm in their allegiance, and the officers in a body expressed their abhorrence of such treachery, he resolved to advance upon the invaders. Unfortunately for his affairs, the Dutch had already taken possession of Axminster. A sudden bleeding at the nose, with which the king was seized, occasioned a delay of some days; and, further symptoms of defection appearing among the officers, he judged it prudent to retire towards London. Lord Churchill, afterwards the famous Duke of Marlborough, and the Duke of Grafton, natural son of Charles II., who had given their opinion for remaining at Salisbury, now fled under cover of the night to the Prince of Orange. Successive misfortunes poured in upon the unfortunate monarch. Trelawney, who occupied an advanced post at Warminster, deserted with all his captains, except one. Prince George of Denmark, the king's son-in-law, and the young Duke of Ormond, left him at Andover. Every day diminished the number of his officers; and, to increase his accumulated misfortunes, he found, on his arrival in London, that his favourite daughter, Anne, Princess of Denmark, had secretly withdrawn herself the night before, in company with Lady Churchill. All his firmness of mind left him; tears started from his eyes; and he broke out into sorrowful exclamations, expressive of his deep sense of his now lost condition. 'God help me!' cried he, in the agony of his heart; 'my own children have forsaken me!'

265. In the greatest perplexity, he summoned a council of peers, by whose advice writs were issued for a new parliament, and commissioners despatched to treat with the prince. A kind of infatuation now took possession of the king, and,

having sent the queen and the infant prince privately to France, he quitted the capital at midnight, almost unattended, for the purpose of following them, leaving orders to recall the writs and disband the army. By this procedure the peace of the country was imminently endangered; but it only served to hasten the complete triumph of the Prince of Orange, who had now advanced to Windsor. The supreme authority seemed on the point of falling into his hands, when, to his great disappointment, the king, having been discovered at Feversham, in Kent, was brought back to London, not without some marks of popular sympathy and affection. There was no alternative but to request the unfortunate monarch to retire to a country-house, where he might await the settlement of affairs. James, finding his palaces taken possession of by Dutch guards, and dreading assassination, took the opportunity to renew his attempt to leave the kingdom. He proceeded on board a vessel in the Medway (December 23, 1688), and, after some obstructions, arrived safely in France, where Louis readily afforded him an asylum.

266. The same day that the king left Whitehall for the last time, his nephew and son-in-law arrived at St James's. The public bodies immediately waited on him, to express their zeal for his cause; and such of the members of the late parliaments as happened to be in town, having met by his invitation, requested him to issue writs for a convention, in order to settle the nation. He was in the same manner, and for the same purpose, requested to call a convention in Scotland. The English convention met on the 22d of January 1689, and during its debates the prince maintained a magnanimous silence and neutrality. The Tory party, though it had joined in calling him over, displayed some scruples respecting the alteration of the succession, and seemed at first inclined to settle the crown on the princess, while William should have only the office of regent; but when this was mentioned to the prince, he calmly replied, that, in that event, he should immediately return to Holland. A bill was then passed, declaring that 'James II., having endeavoured to subvert the constitution, by breaking the *original contract* between the king and people, and having

withdrawn himself from the kingdom, has *abdicated* the government; and that the throne is thereby become *vacant*.' To the bill was added, what was called a *Declaration of Rights*, namely, an enumeration of the various laws by which the royal prerogative and the popular liberties had formerly been settled, but which had been violated and evaded by the Stuart sovereigns. William and Mary, having expressed their willingness to ratify this declaration, were proclaimed king and



Shilling of William and Mary.

queen jointly—the administration to rest in William; and the convention was then converted into a parliament.

267. In Scotland, where the Presbyterians had resumed an ascendancy, the convention came to a less timid decision. It declared that James, by the abuse of his power, had *forfeited* all right to the crown—a decision also affecting his posterity; and William and Mary were immediately after proclaimed. By a bill passed in the English parliament, the succession was settled upon the survivor of the existing royal pair, next upon the Princess Anne and her children, and, finally, upon the children of William by any other consort; an arrangement in which no hereditary principle was overlooked, except that which would have given a preference to James and his infant son.

268. By the Revolution, as this great event was styled, it might be considered as finally decided that the monarchy was not a divine institution, **A.D. 1689.** superior to human challenge, as the late kings had represented it, but one dependent on the people, and established and maintained for their benefit. Many advantages, of smaller importance, though of more direct and practical utility, resulted from the change. The Episcopal Church, which in Scotland had occasioned incessant discontent and disturbance for the last twenty-eight years, was abolished in

that kingdom, and the favourite Presbyterian forms were established, to the almost universal satisfaction of the nation. By an act passed in the English parliament, the dissenters from the Church in England were freed from the severities to which they had been exposed during the last two reigns. The royal revenue, which had formerly been fixed at the beginning of each reign, was now settled annually by the House of Commons, so that the king was more under the control of his people than before. The independence and impartiality of the judges were now secured by their being appointed for life, or during good-behaviour, instead of being removable at the royal pleasure as heretofore. William is said to have wished to grant some further concessions in favour of the Dissenters, but was prevented by the powerful opposition which the Tory party presented in parliament.

Resistance in Scotland.

269. THE new government was at first extremely popular in Scotland ; but one portion of the people was much opposed to it. This consisted of the Highland clans, a primitive race, unable to appreciate the rights which had been gained, prepossessed in favour of direct hereditary succession, and of such warlike habits, that, though a minority, they were able to give no small trouble to the peaceful Lowlanders. When the Scottish convention was about to settle the crown on William and Mary, Viscount Dundee, formerly Graham of Claverhouse, celebrated for his severity upon the recusant Presbyterians, raised an insurrection in the Highlands in favour of King James, while the Duke of Gordon, a Catholic, still held out Edinburgh Castle in the same interest. It was with no small difficulty that the new government could obtain the means of reducing these opponents. The castle, after a protracted siege, was given up in June (1689). General Mackay was despatched by William, with a few troops, to join with such forces as he could obtain in Scotland, and endeavour to suppress the insurrection in the Highlands. He encountered Dundee at Killiecrankie (July 27), and, though his troops were greatly superior in number and

discipline, experienced a complete defeat. Dundee, however, fell by a musket-shot in the moment of victory, and his army was unable to follow up its advantage. In a short time the Highland clans were induced to yield a nominal obedience to William and Mary.

Resistance in Ireland.

270. In Ireland, a much more formidable resistance was offered to the Revolution settlement. Since the accession of James, the Romish faith might be described as virtually predominant in that kingdom. The laws against Catholics had been suspended by the royal authority, all public offices were filled by them, and, though the established clergy were not deprived of their benefices, very little tithe was paid to them. The viceregal office was held by the Earl of Tyrconnel, a violent and ambitious young man, disposed to second the king in all his imprudent measures, and resolved, in the event of their failing, to throw the country into the hands of the French. The people at large, being chiefly Catholics, were warmly attached to the late sovereign, whose cause they regarded as their own.

271. In May 1689, war was proclaimed by Great Britain against France. Early in spring, King James had proceeded from that country with a small armament to Ireland, where he was soon at the head of a large though ill-disciplined army. He immediately ratified an act of the Irish parliament for annulling that settlement of the Protestants upon the lands of Catholics, which had taken place in the time of Cromwell, and another for attainting two thousand persons of the Protestant faith. The Protestants, finding themselves thus dispossessed of what they considered their property, and exposed to the vengeance of a majority over whom they had long ruled, fled to Londonderry, Enniskillen, and other fortified towns, where they made a desperate resistance, in the hope of being speedily succoured by King William. That sovereign now led over a large army to Ireland, and attacked the native forces under his father-in-law at the fords of the Boyne, near the village of Dunore, where he gained a complete victory. **July 1, 1690.**

272. James was completely dispirited by this disaster, and lost no time in sailing again to France. In reality, the Irish made a better appearance, and fought more vigorously, after the battle of the Boyne, than before it. The Duke of Berwick, a natural son of James, and the Earl of Tyrconnel, still kept the field with a large body of cavalry, and the infantry were in the meantime effectually protected in the town of Limerick. William invested this town, and, in one assault upon it, lost two thousand men, which so dispirited him, that he went back to England, leaving his officers to prosecute the war. The Irish afterwards fought a regular battle at Aghrim, when, partly owing to the loss of their brave French leader, St Ruth, they were totally routed. The remains of the Catholic forces took refuge in Limerick, where they finally submitted in terms of a treaty which seemed to secure the Catholic population in all desirable rights and privileges. It was agreed that they should receive a general pardon; that their estates should be restored, their attainders annulled, and their outlawries reversed; that Roman Catholics should enjoy the same toleration as in the days of Charles II., and not be disturbed in the exercise of their religion; that they should be restored to all the privileges of subjects, on simply swearing allegiance to the king and queen; and that such as chose to follow the fortunes of James (of whom there was a vast number), should be conveyed to the continent at the expense of government.

273. King William, whose disposition was tolerant, promised to procure a ratification of this treaty by parliament, but he was thwarted in his design. An act was passed in England, making it necessary for all members of the Irish parliament, and all persons filling civil, military, and ecclesiastical offices in Ireland, to take an oath abjuring the most important doctrines of the Catholic faith. After this had taken effect, in the filling of the Irish parliament with Protestants, an act was passed by that assembly, professing to be a confirmation of the treaty of Limerick, but in reality putting the Catholics into a worse condition than before. The Irish Protestants appear at this time to have acted under a conviction that their own safety and the peace of the nation could not be maintained, unless the Catholics were treated

with all those severities which are usually practised for the repression of a conquered people.

Troubles of the New Government.

274. **THOUGH** all military opposition was thus overcome, William soon found difficulties of another kind in the management of the state. The Tories, though glad to save the established church by calling in his interference, had submitted with no good grace to the necessity of making him king; and no sooner was the danger past, than their usual principles of hereditary right were in a great measure revived. From the name of the exiled monarch, they now began to be known by the appellation of *Jacobites*. James's hopes of a restoration were thus for a long time kept alive, and the peace of William's mind was so much embittered, as to make his sovereignty appear a dear purchase. Perhaps the only circumstance which reconciled the king to his situation, was the great additional force he could now bring against the ambitious designs of Louis XIV. Almost from his accession he entered heartily into the combination of European powers for checking this warlike prince, and conducted military operations against him every summer in person. The necessity of having supplies for that purpose rendered him unfit, even if he had been willing, to resist any liberal measures proposed to him in parliament, and hence his passing of the famous Triennial Act in 1694, by which it was appointed that a new parliament should be called every third year. In this year died Queen Mary, without offspring; after which William reigned as sole monarch.

Glencoe Massacre—Darien Expedition.

275. **WHILE** William was treated in England with less than justice, he lost all his popularity in Scotland, in consequence of two separate acts, characterised by great cruelty and injustice. An order had been issued, commanding all the Highland chiefs, under pain of fire and sword, to give in their submission before the last day of 1691. M'an, the head of the

Macdonalds of Glencoe, was prevented by accident from observing the day, and letters of fire and sword, signed by the king, were accordingly issued against him. The military party intrusted with this duty, instead of boldly advancing to the task, came among the clan as friends, partook of their hospitality and amusements, and never indicated their intentions till the morning of the 13th of February (1692), when they attacked the unsuspecting people in their beds, and mercilessly slew all that came in their way. Thirty-eight persons, including the chief and his wife, were slaughtered, and many others died in the snow, as they vainly tried to escape. A more atrocious action does not stain modern history, though the barbarous circumstances of the slaughter were more owing to feelings of private revenge on the part of some of the officials of government in Scotland, than to the intentions of King William.

276. Two or three years after, the Scottish people began to turn their attention to commerce, by which they saw great advantages gained by neighbouring states, and they planned a colony on the Isthmus of Darien, which they thought might become an emporium for American and Indian produce. They subscribed among themselves, for this purpose, no less than £400,000 ; to which was added more than as much again by merchants in London and Holland. The jealousy of other trading companies, and the remonstrances of the Spaniards, who apprehended some interference with their colonies, induced the king to withdraw his countenance from the scheme, after he had sanctioned it by act of parliament ; but, nevertheless (1698), a gallant expedition was sent out by the Scots, who founded a town called New Edinburgh, about midway between Portobello and Carthage, and under the ninth degree of north latitude. During the winter months, everything seemed likely to answer the expectations of the colonists ; but summer brought disease, and, on their provisions running low, they found, to their infinite consternation, that they could get no supplies, the Spanish and British colonists of the neighbouring countries being forbidden to deal with them. In May and September 1699, ere intelligence of these circumstances could reach home, two other expeditions had sailed, containing 1800 men, who were involved on their

arrival in the same disasters. After disease had swept off many hundreds, the remainder were attacked by the Spaniards, who pretended a right to the country; and to these haughty enemies, who were countenanced in their proceedings by the British sovereign, the unfortunate colony was obliged to surrender. Very few ever regained their native country, and the large sums vested in the undertaking were irrecoverably lost. The massacre of Glencoe, and the Darien expedition, excited the most bitter feelings against the king in the breasts of the Scottish nation, among whom the Jacobite party thenceforward began to assume a formidable appearance.

End of the Reign of William III.

277. THE peace of Ryswick, concluded in 1697, by which the French power was confined to due limits, permitted William to spend the concluding years of his reign in peace. In 1700, in consideration that he and his sister-in-law Anne had no children, the famous Act of Succession was passed, by which the crown, failing these two individuals, was settled upon the next Protestant heir, Sophia, Duchess of Hanover, daughter of Elizabeth, the eldest daughter of James I.

278. About this time, the causes of a new war took their rise in certain disputes respecting the succession to the crown of Spain. The title to that sovereignty, in the event of the death of the existing king without heirs, was claimed by the King of France, the Elector of Bavaria, and the Emperor of Germany, through various female lines of descent. A treaty, to which England was a party, was entered into for preventing the whole from falling into the hands of the reigning family of France, whose possessions would then have been so great as to be inconsistent, it was thought, with the independence and safety of the neighbouring states. At the death of the King of Spain, a will was produced, in which it appeared that he had appointed the Duke of Anjou, second son of the dauphin, to be his successor. The French king lost no time in enforcing the pretensions of his grandson, who, under the title of Philip V., became the founder of the Bourbon dynasty in Spain.

279. About the same time (September 1701), James, the exiled English king, died at St Germain's, leaving his pretensions to his son, James, Prince of Wales, now a boy of thirteen years of age, and henceforth generally recognised in Britain by the epithet of the *Pretender*. Without regard to the treaty of Ryswick, Louis XIV. acknowledged this young person as JAMES THE THIRD, King of Great Britain, by which he added greatly to the hostile feeling which his other proceedings had already created in the British king and people. A war was accordingly in preparation, when King William died (March 8, 1702) in consequence of a fall from his horse.

280. William was a prince of commanding ability, particularly in military affairs. His ruling sentiment was a wish to reduce the power of the King of France, which he was able in no small degree to effect. His person was thin and feeble, and his ordinary demeanour cold, silent, and somewhat repulsive. It was only in battle that he ever became animated or easy. He was a conscientious man, of sober domestic habits, and sincerely attached to toleration in religion. But for the questionable act of expelling his uncle and father-in-law from the throne, and his concern in the affairs of Glencoe and Darien, no serious blot of any kind would have rested upon his name, either as a public or private person.

281. The reign of King William is remarkable for the first legal support of a standing army, and for the commencement of the national debt. It is also distinguished by the first establishment of regular banks for the deposit of money, and the issue of a paper currency. Formerly, the business of banking, as far as necessary, was transacted by goldsmiths, or through the medium of the public Exchequer, by which plans the public was not sufficiently insured against loss. In 1694, the first public establishment for the purpose, the *Bank of England*, was established by one William Paterson, a scheming Scotsman; and next year the Bank of Scotland was set on foot by one Holland, an English merchant; the capital in the one case being only £1,200,000, and in the other, the tenth part of that sum.

282. In the reign of King William flourished Sir William

Temple, an eminent political and philosophical writer, to whom is usually assigned the honour of first composing the English language in the fluent and measured manner which afterwards became general. The most profound philosophical writer of the age was John Locke, author of an *Essay on the Human Understanding*, an *Essay on Toleration*, and other works. Bishop Tillotson stands high as a writer of elegant sermons. The greatest name in polite literature is that of John Dryden, remarkable for his energetic style of poetry, and his translations of Virgil and Juvenal.

Queen Anne—Marlborough's Campaigns.

283. WILLIAM was succeeded by his sister-in-law ANNE, second daughter of the late James II.; a princess now thirty-eight years of age, and **May 8, 1702**, chiefly remarkable for her zealous attachment to the Church of England. The movement against the King of France had not been confined to Great Britain; it was a combination of that power with the Emperor of Germany and the States of Holland. Queen Anne found it necessary to maintain her place in the Grand Alliance, as it was termed; and the Duke of Marlborough was sent over to the continent with a large army to prosecute the war in conjunction with the allies. Now commenced that career of military glory which has rendered the reign of Anne and the name of Marlborough so famous. In Germany and Flanders, under this commander, the British army gained some signal successes, particularly those of Blenheim (August 1704), and Ramilies (May 12, 1706): in Spain, a smaller army, under the chivalrously brave Earl of Peterborough, performed other services of an important kind. The war, however, was one in which Britain had no real interest—for it has been seen that Spain has continued under a branch of the House of Bourbon, without greatly endangering other states (see pars. 289, 405).

284. A party, consisting chiefly of Tories, endeavoured, in 1706, to put an end to the war; and France was so much reduced in strength as to concede all the objects for which the contest had been commenced. But the people were so

strongly inspired with a desire of humiliating France, which in commerce and religion they considered their natural enemy, that some ambitious statesmen of a contrary line of politics were enabled to mar the design of a treaty. Among these was the Duke of Marlborough, who, being permitted to profit, not only by his pay but by perquisites attached to his command, wished the war to be protracted, merely that he might make his enormous wealth a little greater. It was in consequence of these unnecessary interferences with continental politics, urged chiefly by the people, and by a popular class of statesmen, that the first large sums of the national debt were contracted.

Union of England and Scotland: May 1. 1707.

285. SINCE their religious enthusiasm had been laid at rest by the Revolution Settlement, the Scottish people had been chiefly animated by a desire of participating in the commerce of England. The treatment of their expedition to Darien had now inspired them with a bitter feeling against their southern neighbours, and they resolved to shew their power of counter-annoyance, by holding out threats of dissenting from England in the matter of the succession. In 1703, their parliament passed the famous *Act of Security*, by which it was ordained that the successor of her majesty in Scotland should not be the same with the individual adopted by the English parliament, unless there should be a free communication of trade between the countries, and the affairs of Scotland thoroughly secured from English influence. Another act was at the same time passed, for putting the nation under arms. The English ministers then saw that an incorporating union would be necessary to prevent the Pretender from gaining the Scottish crown, and to protect England from the attacks of a hostile nation. For this purpose, they exerted themselves so effectually in the Scottish parliament, as to obtain an act, enabling the queen to nominate commissioners for the arrangement of an union. The men appointed, thirty on each side, were, with hardly an exception, the friends of the Court and of the Revolution.

Settlement; and the treaty accordingly was framed without difficulty.

286. In October 1706, this document was submitted to the Scottish parliament, and was found to contain the following principal points:—that the two nations were to be indissolubly united under one government and legislature, each, however, retaining its own civil and criminal law; the crown to be in the house of Hanover; the Scottish Presbyterian church to be guaranteed; forty-five members to be sent by the Scottish counties and burghs to the House of Commons, and sixteen elective peers to be sent to the Upper House by the nobles; the taxes to be equalised, but, in consideration of the elevation of the Scotch imposts to the level of the English (for the latter people already owed sixteen millions), an equivalent was to be given to Scotland, amounting to nearly four hundred thousand pounds, which was to aid in renewing the coin, and other objects. These terms were regarded by many in Scotland as inadequate; and the very idea of the loss of an independent legislature and a place among governments, raised a general indignation. Nevertheless, with the help of bribery, the union was carried through parliament; and, from the first of May 1707, the two countries formed one state, under the title of the kingdom of Great Britain.

High Church Enthusiasm.

287. SINCE the Revolution, the Whigs might be considered as the predominant party in England. They almost exclusively constituted the ministries, and a large majority in the parliaments, of King William. The sentiments of the queen were of a different cast from theirs. She disrelished the Revolution Settlement, by which she reigned; and was more zealously attached than they to the Church of England, in all its doctrines, practices, and privileges. As the remembrance of the errors of King James faded from the public recollection, or were put out of view by more recent grievances, the people began to partake more generally of the Tory spirit. The parliament which they returned at the beginning

of the new reign, contained a much larger admixture of that party than the former one. The Tory feeling of both people and parliament chiefly took the direction of a strong attachment to the Church of England, which they wished to maintain in uncompromising supremacy, and in all its privileges ; while the Whig party, in general, were favourable to the toleration called for by the Dissenters. The distinction of High Church and Low Church now became conspicuous, the one phrase implying the ecclesiastical views of the Tories, while the other referred to those of the Whigs. In this parliament, the House of Commons passed a bill against *occasional conformity*, by which penalties were imposed on all persons in office who should attend dissenting places of worship ; but it was thrown out by the Upper House, in which the bishops created by William voted against it.

288. An imprudent act of the ministry raised the High Church enthusiasm to an extraordinary height. A divine of inferior note, named Henry Sacheverel, had preached a violent sermon, in which he seemed to call upon the people to take up arms in defence of their endangered church. The ministers were so weak as to give this man a solemn trial, during which the people rose so tumultuously in his favour, that, though declared guilty, it was found impossible to inflict upon him more than a nominal punishment. After the trial, he received more marks of public reverence and honour than were ever bestowed on the greatest national benefactor. In proportion to the popularity of Dr Sacheverel, was the loss of public favour experienced by the Whig party. About the same time, through some court intrigues, they forfeited all remaining favour with their royal mistress. Mrs Masham, a lady of the court, and favourite of the queen, had contrived to introduce into the cabinet two Tory statesmen, Mr Robert Harley, afterwards Earl of Oxford, and Mr Henry St John, afterwards Lord Bolingbroke. These gentlemen having attempted to set up a party for themselves, their superior Lord Godolphin dismissed them, to the great displeasure of Queen Anne, who now resolved to get quit of the Whig party at the first opportunity. In August 1710, Harley and St John came into power, at the

head of a decidedly Tory ministry, which, though of brief duration, was destined to make an important figure in the national history. The queen at the same time called a new parliament, which proved to be almost wholly composed of the Tory party.

Peace of Utrecht—Death of Queen Anne.

289. THE members of the new cabinet immediately applied themselves, though very secretly, to the business of bringing about a peace. When their plans were matured, the consent of the House of Commons was easily gained; but, the Lords having shewn some reluctance, it was found necessary to create twelve new peers, in order to overpower the sense of that part of the legislature. After a tedious course of negotiation, Britain and Holland concluded a peace at Utrecht, leaving the **March 30, 1713.** Emperor of Germany still at war. By this arrangement, Philip V. was permitted to retain Spain and the Indies, but no other part of the dominions which his ambitious grandfather had endeavoured to secure for him; and it was provided that he and his descendants should never inherit the kingdom of France, nor any future king of France accede to the crown of Spain. Britain obtained nothing tangible by all her exertions, except the possession of Gibraltar and Minorca, and the privilege of being exclusively employed to carry slaves to the Spanish American colonies. It has justly been considered a stain upon the nation, that it should have concluded a separate peace under such clandestine circumstances, as the interests of the other belligerent parties were thereby greatly injured. For the gratification of their High Church supporters, the ministers obtained an act for preventing Dissenters from keeping schools, and another for establishing church patronage in Scotland, the former of which was repealed in the following reign.

290. It has been questioned whether Queen Anne and her Tory ministry sincerely designed to allow the crown to fall to the family of Sophia, Electress of Hanover, in con-

formity with the Act of Settlement, or secretly contemplated the restoration of the main line of the Stuarts, in the person of the Pretender. Statesmen in that age acted with so much duplicity, that their real intents cannot easily be traced. Godolphin, Marlborough, Sunderland, Russell, and others, who had been conspicuous in effecting the Revolution, and at all times acted with apparent consistency as Whigs, have been discovered, by the exposure of the papers of the Stuart family, to have conducted a secret correspondence with the exiled court, the return of which was for many years considered as a probable event. When we find eminent Whig leaders tampering with the Pretender, it requires the less to convince us that Queen Anne and her Tory ministers should have done so too. That the queen really wished to be succeeded by her brother, has not been proved; but it is extremely probable that, if he had embraced the Protestant faith, she would have made some effort in his favour. That Harley and St John intrigued with the Pretender for his restoration, was only suspected at the time, but has since been proved. Their design, however, was frustrated by a violent quarrel which took place between them, and the dread which each entertained of being exposed by the other. Before any plan could be formed, the queen took suddenly ill and died (August 1, 1714), when the ministers had no alternative but to proceed according to the Act of Settlement. The Electress Sophia being recently dead, her son, the elector, was proclaimed under the title of **GEORGE THE FIRST**.

291. The reign of Queen Anne is not more distinguished by the wonderful series of victories gained by Marlborough, than by the brilliant list of literary men who then flourished, and who have caused this to be styled the Augustan age of English literature, as resembling that of the Roman Emperor Augustus. Alexander Pope stands unrivalled in polished verse on moral subjects. Jonathan Swift is a miscellaneous writer of singular vigour and an extraordinary kind of humour. Joseph Addison wrote on familiar life and on moral and critical subjects with a degree of elegance before unknown. Sir Richard Steele was a lively writer of miscellaneous essays, and successful as a dramatist. This last

author, with assistance from Addison and others, set on foot the *Tatler*, *Spectator*, and *Guardian*, the earliest examples of small periodical papers in England, and which continue to this day to be regarded as standard works. Cibber, Congreve, Vanburgh, and Farquhar, were distinguished writers of comedy; and Prior, Philips, and Rowe, were pleasing poets. In graver literature, this age is not less eminent. Dr Berkeley shines as a metaphysician; Drs Sherlock, Atterbury, and Clark as divines; and Bentley as a critic of the Roman classics.

Accession of the House of Hanover—Rebellion of 1715-16.

292. THE new sovereign lost no time in coming over to Britain, and fixing himself in that heritage which his family has ever since retained. He was fifty-four years of age, of a good though not brilliant understanding, and very firm in his principles. Knowing well that the Whigs were his only true friends, he at once called them into the administration: the Tories he treated with contempt, if not absolute rudeness, being of opinion that it is needless to seek to conciliate enemies. It was, indeed, the custom of that period for every party, on getting into power, to try to annihilate their opponents. At the accession of the Tories to office in 1710, Marlborough had been deprived of his command, while Mr Robert Walpole, a rising Whig leader, was committed to the Tower. On the Whigs now regaining an ascendancy, they felt disposed to revenge these severities; and, accordingly, not only were the whole Tory party insulted by the king, but a committee of the House of Commons was appointed to prepare articles of impeachment against Oxford, Bolingbroke, the Duke of Ormond, and the Earl of Strafford. Bolingbroke, perceiving his life to be in danger, fled to the continent; and his attainder was in consequence moved and carried by his rival Walpole. Ormond suffered a similar fate. Oxford,

after a protracted trial, was only saved in consequence of a difference between the Lords and Commons.

293. During the first year of King George, the Tories kept up very threatening popular disturbances in favour of High Church principles; but the Whigs, gaining a majority in the new House of Commons, were able to check this a little by the celebrated enactment, called the *Riot Act*, which permits military force to be used in dispersing a crowd, after a certain space of time has been allowed. Disappointed in their hopes of office and power, and stung by the treatment of their leaders, the Tories resolved to attempt bringing in the Pretender by force of arms. With an eager hopefulness, which for a long time was characteristic of the party, they believed that all England and Scotland were ready to take up arms for the Pretender, when in reality there was but a limited portion of the people so inclined, and that portion unwilling to move, if they saw the least risk. Blind to these circumstances, and without design or concert, they commenced the unfortunate civil war of 1715.

294. The Earl of Mar, who had been a secretary of state in the late administration, raised his standard in Braemar (September 6), without any commission from the Pretender, and was soon joined, by Highland clans to the amount of 10,000 men, who rendered him master of all Scotland north of the Forth. There, however, he weakly permitted himself to be cooped up by the Duke of Argyle, who, with a far less numerous force, had posted himself at Stirling. Mar expected to be supported by an invasion of England by the Duke of Ormond, and a rising of the people of that country. But the duke completely failed in his design, and no rising took place, except in Northumberland. There Mr Foster, one of the members of parliament for the county, and the Earl of Derwentwater, with some other noblemen, appeared in arms, but unsupported by any considerable portion of the people. Mar detached a party of eighteen hundred foot, under Mackintosh of Borlum, to join the Northumbrian insurgents, who complained that they had no infantry. The junction was managed with address; and at the same time some noblemen and gentlemen of the south of Scotland attached themselves to the southern army. The govern-

ment was ill provided with troops; but it nevertheless sent such a force against Mr Foster, as obliged him to retire with his men into the town of Preston, in Lancashire, where, after an obstinate defence, the whole party (November 13) surrendered themselves prisoners at the king's mercy. On the same day, the Earl of Mar met the Duke of Argyle at Sheriffmuir, near Dunblane, where a battle was fought, in which, after the manner of the battles in the civil war, the right wing of each army was successful, but neither altogether victorious. The duke withdrew in the face of his enemy to Stirling, and the earl retired to Perth, resolved to wait for the news of an invasion from France, and for the arrival of the Pretender, whom he had invited to Scotland.

295. Mar did not for some time become aware how little reason he had to expect support from France. Louis XIV., upon whom the hopes of the party greatly rested, had died in September, leaving the government to the Regent Orleans, who had strong personal reasons for wishing to cultivate the good-will of the British monarch, and of course declined to assist in the present enterprise. The Pretender, nevertheless, sailed for Scotland, and, on the 22d of December, arrived incognito at Peterhead, bringing nothing but his own person to aid his adherents. Mar, who had already attempted to negotiate a submission to the government, brought him forward to Perth, where he was amused for some time with preparations for his coronation. But before he had been there many days, the Duke of Argyle found himself in a condition to advance against the insurgent force; and, on the 30th of January 1716, this unfortunate prince commenced a retreat to the north, along with his dispirited army. On the 4th of February, he and the Earl of Mar provided for their own safety by going on board a vessel at Montrose, and setting sail for France: the army dispersed itself into the Highlands. For this unhappy appearance in arms, the Earl of Derwentwater, Viscount Kenmure, and about twenty inferior persons, were executed; forty Scottish families of the first rank lost their estates, and many excellent members of society became exiles for the remainder of their lives.

Character of the Government under George I.

296. THE suppression of this insurrection, and the ruin of so many Tory leaders, tended to increase the power of the Whig party, and the stability of the Hanoverian dynasty. The government, nevertheless, acted under considerable difficulties, as they were opposed by the majority of the clergy and country gentry, as well as by the whole of the mob feeling, except in the large commercial towns. To avoid the hazard of too often appealing to the people, they carried, in 1716, a bill for repealing King William's Triennial Act, and protracting the present and all future parliaments to a duration of seven years. The chief popular support of the government was in the Dissenters, and the middle classes of the community. The Tories, by professing those popular doctrines, which are more usually maintained by the opposite party, gained all who were discontented either with their own condition or that of the nation. The favour of the king for his German counsellors, and the influence which he allowed his mistresses to exercise over him, formed excellent topics for opposition eloquence, but were not in reality attended with any bad consequences to the liberties of the people.

297. The year 1718 is remarkable for the last effort of the Church of England to maintain a separate political influence in the country. Hoadly, Bishop of Bangour, one of a few prelates of Whig appointment who advocated moderate Church views, preached before the king, in the Chapel-Royal, a sermon 'on the Nature of the Kingdom of Christ,' in which he maintained that an Established Church was a mere human institution, for the purpose of teaching a particular faith; that it should have no authority to enforce its doctrines outwardly; and had no authority from God to enforce them on the mind. He further maintained religious liberty as a right of the subject. At the next meeting of the Convocation of the English clergy, they were proceeding to pass a severe censure on the bishop, and to institute other proceedings, when they were suddenly interrupted by a dissolution. This body, which had heretofore passed all the laws for regulating the church, as far as permitted by

parliament, and had even granted supplies for the king, was not afterwards for many years called together.

The South-sea Scheme.

298. FROM the peace of Utrecht, Britain remained free from foreign war for nearly thirty years, excepting that, in 1719, the ministry was called on to interfere for the repression of an attempt on the part of Spain to regain her Italian territories. A Scotsman, named Law, who had become comptroller-general of France, and amused that country with financial schemes, which at first promised to enrich, but finally almost ruined the country, was the means of inspiriting the British people with a similar visionary project, called the South-sea Scheme. **A.D. 1720.** The wish of the ministry was, that some extensive company should buy up the debts of the nation, and either charge a smaller interest, or allow some other advantage to government, for certain commercial privileges to be given in return. On this project being made known, the Bank of England and the South-sea Company made competing offers, and the final offer of the latter was apparently so advantageous, that it was unhesitatingly accepted. According to the agreement, as finally fixed by act of parliament, the South-sea Company were invested with certain exclusive privileges of trading. They were authorised to agree with the holders of government stock for the purchase of it; that is, they were entitled to buy up the debts of the government, and become the creditors of the nation. The stock in which these debts were invested was of different kinds, according to the terms on which the government had borrowed, being in some cases annuities—in others, fixed sums lying at interest. The Company, on becoming the creditors for these different debts, gave the government on each respectively better terms than the original creditors. Thus, they agreed to reduce the interest on the stock they should hold to four per cent., and to pay no less than seven millions into the Exchequer on account of the annuities purchased by them.

299. When the whole was agreed on, books were opened

that the public might subscribe and become shareholders in the adventure. Those most deeply involved in it, circulated the most extravagant rumours about its probable success. It was said that Gibraltar and Minorca would be ceded to Spain, and in return, the South-sea Company would receive a monopoly of commerce with Mexico and Peru. The subscriptions filled up with great rapidity, and the deception was increased by the Court of Directors proclaiming a dividend of thirty per cent. for next Christmas; in other words, that each hundred pounds deposited when the scheme was begun in April, was the means of bringing its owner thirty pounds of profit by Christmas. Those who had purchased stock were now considered fortunate men, and others were ready to buy from them at a high premium. The price rose till, to the astonishment of all calm onlookers, it reached £1000; that is to say, people were content to pay a thousand pounds for the chance of what a hundred subscribed to the South-sea Company might produce. This was the gain of those who were concerned in the plot. They could sell their hundred-pound shares for a thousand, knowing well, that even the former sum was more than the real value.

300. At length, an alarm was suddenly taken, and the price fell with more rapidity than it had risen. Thousands were ruined, and the nation was on the eve of anarchy. From this it was saved by the decided measures of the House of Commons, headed by Sir Robert Walpole, who was the best arithmetician of his age. A secret committee was appointed to examine the affairs of the South-sea Company, who reported, that, besides the dark deceptions which had been practised on the public mind, people high in station had been bribed to assist the measure, by getting large portions of stock for nothing. Lord Sunderland, the prime minister, and Mr Aislachie, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, immediately resigned their offices, and the latter was expelled the House of Commons, and committed to the Tower. Various other punishments were inflicted on persons more or less connected with the transaction; but it was generally believed that those deepest in the conspiracy had influence to screen themselves from too minute inquiry. By an extremely complicated

adjustment, the House of Commons equalised as nearly as possible the state of gain and loss among the innocent parties, and credit was restored. Walpole, after this service to his country, became Premier and Chancellor of the Exchequer, and, for upwards of twenty years from that period (April 1721), he must be looked on as the prime manager of the public affairs.

301. At the beginning of the reign of George I. the national debt amounted to fifty-three millions, and, owing to there having been no war, it was rather less at the time of the king's death. The annual expenditure of the state was about seven millions, or scarcely a tenth part of what it now is. The commerce and manufactures of England continued to advance steadily during this reign; but Scotland and Ireland remained in an unimproved state. Roads were now for the first time made in the Highlands. The chief literary men were the same as those who had come into repute in the time of Queen Anne: in addition to them, John Gay is to be reckoned amongst the poets, and Waterland and Lardner amongst the divines. This was also more particularly the age of Daniel Defoe, a dexterous writer of pamphlets on the nonconformist side, but far more noted in later times on account of his admirable tale of 'Robinson Crusoe.'

George II.

302. GEORGE I., at his death in 1727, was succeeded by his son, GEORGE THE SECOND, a prince of moderate abilities, but conscientious, and free from gross faults. The new monarch, having been on bad terms with Walpole when Prince of Wales, was expected by the Tories to make some change in the ministry. Their endeavours to supplant the Whigs were baffled by Walpole, chiefly in consequence of that minister offering the queen a higher income than his rivals. In 1732, his enemies had another opportunity of shaking his power. Great frauds were proved to have taken place in the collection of the customs, although unavoidable from the method of levying the duties. A portion of these

the minister proposed to levy as an excise. That species of duty cannot be levied without investigations into the private property of individuals, and of this circumstance full advantage was taken by the Opposition. The people, being effectually roused, surrounded the parliament, crying out, 'Liberty, property, and no excise.' Sir Robert had a majority for his scheme in the House of Commons; but the clamour without compelled him to resign it. He left, however, a useful legacy to commerce, in the present bonding system, by which imported goods are kept under the inspection of the custom-house until they are sold to the retailer, so that the importer has not to pay the duties, which, in many cases, are greater than the price of the goods, and would greatly hamper his means.

303. The sagacity and good-nature of Sir Robert Walpole would have insured to him a better reputation, if he had not maintained his influence so exclusively by bribery and corruption. He cherished as a leading maxim, that every man had his price, and, when that was ascertained, that there remained no difficulty but to raise the necessary sum, or confer the requisite favour. He acted so regularly upon this principle, and with so little decency, that the British parliament became a mere mockery of a representative or deliberative body. Not that there was wanting a minority, who, calling themselves patriots, declaimed loudly against the base practices of the ministry, and affected to stand up for the country. Sir Robert, however, looked upon these persons—and he perhaps was not far wrong—as only individuals whose price he had not been able to compass, or had not thought it worth while to disburse. It is a curious evidence of the corruptness of the times, that, when the legality of an election was disputed in the House of Commons, it was always decided in favour of the person who sided with the majority—in other words, with the government. It was when an election case was decided against him, that Walpole saw the necessity of retiring from office.

War with Spain, 1739.

304. AFTER a peace of extraordinary duration, Walpole

was urged, much against his will, into a contest with Spain, on account of some efforts made by that country to check an illicit trade carried on by British merchants in its American colonies. In searching vessels for the prevention of this traffic, the Spaniards had made some trifling aggressions; and British spirit took fire at the indignity of being liable to a search by any neighbouring state, even for the prevention of a notorious breach of treaty. The community therefore demanded a war, and the minister, with great reluctance, was obliged to comply. One fleet, under Admiral Haddock, was sent to cruise off the coast of Spain; and another, under Admiral Vernon, was sent against the American colonies. The latter gained lustre by taking the important town of **Nov. 22. 1739.** Portobello. Another and larger expedition, with 10,000 soldiers, was then sent to reinforce Vernon; but, owing to disputes between him and the commander of the troops, no further triumphs were gained. A timid, ill-concerted, and ill-conducted attack upon the fortifications of Carthage, lost Britain about 20,000 men. Meantime, a third fleet, under Anson, sailed to the western coast of Spanish America, in order to co-operate with Vernon; but only one of the vessels reached its destination. Anson, thus reduced in naval force, took several prizes off Chili, and plundered the town of Paita, but could venture upon no more hazardous enterprise. He cruised across the Pacific, in the hope of meeting one of the Spanish galleons, which usually contained great quantities of bullion; but did not succeed, till, on his return from refitting at Canton, he took the Manilla transport, with treasure to the amount of three hundred thousand pounds. Though he had failed in all the proper objects of his expedition, the money he brought to the public treasury caused him to be very well received by the people; while the flagrant mismanagement at Carthage was the subject of general execration.

War with France.

305. The Spanish war now languished for some time,

while the attention of Britain was attracted to the proceedings of France. After the death of the Emperor Charles VI. of Germany, his dominions fell by inheritance to his daughter, the celebrated Maria Theresa, Queen of Hungary. She was opposed in this succession by the sovereigns of France, Saxony, and Bavaria, all of whom pretended to have some claims on her dominions. A war was commenced against her; the Elector of Bavaria was crowned emperor, under the title of Charles VII.; and such was the success of the French arms, that she was soon reduced to the greatest distress. With this quarrel Britain had little reason for interfering; but the king thought his dominions in Germany endangered, and the people were animated by their usual hostility to the French. Walpole, being conscientiously opposed to the war, allowed himself to be driven from office (February 1742), though he still continued to enjoy the respect of the king.

306. The ministry was recruited by the most popular men of the late minority, among whom the most conspicuous were Lord Carteret and the Earl of Bath. It was of course expected that these statesmen would lose no time, after they were in power, to effect some of those improvements in the constitution which they had formerly clamoured for. Indeed, nothing less than a total renovation of the constitution was expected. A number of motions to this purport were accordingly made in both houses of parliament; but, to the astonishment of the nation, they were all violently opposed and quashed by the very men who had lately maintained the principles on which they were founded, and whose former speeches had suggested many of them. The most important of these motions were the following three:—One for appointing a committee to ‘inquire into the conduct of affairs during the last twenty years;’ one for bringing in a bill to ‘repeal the act for septennial parliaments;’ and one ‘for excluding pensioners from the House of Lords.’ Though German subsidies, standing armies, and continental connections, had been the constant objects of the indignation of these men while out of place, and had furnished them with the occasion of some of the finest strokes of their popular eloquence, they extended their complaisance

to the king in all these particulars much further than their predecessors. Besides providing for subsidies to Denmark and Hesse-Cassel, they procured a vote of half a million to the Queen of Hungary; they augmented the land-forces to 62,500; they transported to the Low Countries 16,000 British troops, under the Earl of Stair, to make a diversion in favour of Maria Theresa; and they ordered these troops to be joined by 6000 Hessians and 16,000 Hanoverians, who were paid by British money to fight the battles of their own country.

307. About the time when Great Britain entered into this struggle, the affairs of the Hungarian queen took a surprising turn, and her armies, under her husband the Grand Duke of Tuscany, Prince Charles of Lorraine, and other eminent commanders, began to drive her enemies from her dominions. France, having lost 100,000 men in the contest, sued for peace; but this the queen haughtily refused, in the hope of gaining still greater triumphs by means of Britain. The aid of that power, as it turned out, was of little service to the queen. The Earl of Stair had permitted his army to get into a position of great difficulty at Aschaffenburg, on the Upper Maine, and, but for a blunder of the French, it would probably have been starved into a surrender, along with the king and prime minister (Carteret), both of whom had recently joined it. The blunder consisted in an attack made by the Duke of Grammont, with 30,000 troops, upon the British and Hanoverian infantry, upon a plain near the village of Dettingen. The infantry, **June 16, 1743.** cheered by the presence of the king, who rode between the lines with his sword drawn, received the charge of the French cavalry with great firmness, and compelled them to retreat—a movement which communicated a panic to the whole French army, and might have been attended with the most disastrous consequences, if the British monarch would have permitted his advantage to be followed up. This was the last occasion of a king of Great Britain appearing on the field of battle.

308. The death of the Emperor Charles VII., for whom this great European contest appeared to have taken its rise,

might have now given an opportunity for the cessation of hostilities ; but the French thought the war still necessary in order to prevent the husband of Maria Theresa from being elected emperor, and the British were still animated by their usual antipathy to the French. A campaign was therefore opened in Flanders, the troops of the French nation being commanded by Count Saxe, distinguished for military genius and experience ; while the British and Hanoverian army was under the charge of the young Duke of Cumberland, second son to the king. To animate the French troops, their sovereign (Louis XV.) and the dauphin attended the camp. The French having invested Tournay, it was resolved by the English to hazard a battle, in order to save that strong city.

309. The rencounter took place (May 1745) at Fontenoy, near the bridge of Colonne. The British infantry advanced under Cumberland, and, notwithstanding a tremendous fire, which swept them off in whole ranks, attacked the centre of the position of the French army, which they beat back in so furious a style, that Saxe advised the king to retire for the safety of his person. Louis bravely refused to stir, being apprehensive that a retrograde motion on his part would decide the day against his army. Ashamed to desert their sovereign, the French returned to the charge ; the cavalry renewed their efforts ; and other circumstances conspired to give a turn to the battle. The British cavalry were prevented by a mistake from giving their support to the infantry ; and the Dutch and Austrian part of the army was found totally ineffective. Assailed on all sides, fatigued with their great exertions, and galled by the French batteries, the infantry was obliged to retire, with a loss of 7000 men, after having beaten every regiment in the French army. The Duke of Cumberland, though able to withdraw in good order, did not venture after this disaster to face the enemy during the whole campaign. Nevertheless, the Queen of Hungary at this time gained the summit of her wishes, by the election of her husband to the imperial throne.

Rebellion of 1745.

310. THE Pretender had married, in 1719, the Princess Clementina Sobieski of Poland, and was now the father of two sons in the bloom of youth, the elder of whom has been distinguished in history by the title of Prince Charles Stuart. The misfortunes of the British arms on the continent, and the dissensions which prevailed among the people and the parliament, encouraged this prince to make an attempt to recover the throne of his ancestors. In 1744, he had been furnished by France with a large fleet and ample stores to invade the British dominions, but had been driven back by a storm, and prevented from again setting sail by a superior fleet under Sir John Norris. The object of France in this enterprise was to produce a diversion in favour of her own army in the Netherlands. At present, in consequence of the victory of Fontenoy, such an enterprise was no longer necessary; but though the French monarch would not grant him any further supply, Charles resolved to make the proposed attempt, trusting solely to the generosity and valour of his friends in Britain. He therefore landed from a single vessel, with only seven attendants, on the coast of Inverness-shire, where the clans most attached to his family chiefly resided. By merely working upon the ardent feelings of the Highland chiefs, he soon induced several of them to take up arms, among whom were Lochiel, Clanranald, Glengary, and Keppoch.

311. On the 19th of August, he raised his standard at Glenfinnan, within a few miles of the government station of Fort William, and found himself surrounded by about 1500 men. The government was at first inclined to disbelieve the intelligence of these proceedings, but was soon obliged to take steps for its own defence. A reward of thirty thousand pounds was offered for the head of the young prince, who, with all his family, was under attainder by act of parliament; and Sir John Cope, commander of the forces in Scotland, was ordered to advance with what troops he had into the Highlands, and suppress the insurrection. Cope proceeded on this mission with about 1400 infantry; but on finding the Highlanders in possession of a strong

post near Fort Augustus, he thought it necessary to go aside to Inverness. Charles, taking advantage of this ill-judged movement, immediately poured his clans down into the Lowlands, gaining accessions everywhere as he advanced; and, there being no adequate force to oppose him, he took possession successively of Perth and Edinburgh.

312. At the latter city, Charles took up his residence in Holyrood House, and caused his father to be solemnly proclaimed king, and himself prince-regent. He was here joined by 1000 fresh troops from the Highlands, but found it impossible to raise any recruits in the city. Having learned that Cope had transported his troops into the Lowlands by sea, and was advancing through East Lothian to meet him, he put his army in motion, and soon came in sight of the English forces, which had taken up a position on a field to the east of the village of Preston. The two armies amounted each to about 2000 men; but Cope had the advantage of dragoons and artillery. The prince lay all night on a field in the midst of his Highlanders, and, before daylight next morning (September 21), led his forces by stealth into the plain on which the royal troops were reposing, where he formed them in two lines, the best armed clans occupying the front. A rapid advance was then made against the English army, which had hardly time to arrange itself, when the Highlanders, after a discharge of firearms, rushed upon them sword in hand. The uncertain light, the suddenness of the attack, and the ignorance of the troops as to the mode of warfare pursued by the Highlanders, all tended to inspire a panic in the assailed party. The two regiments of dragoons instantly fled, leaving the foot comparatively defenceless. The artillery was but once discharged, when the Camerons overpowered those who had the charge of it. Some companies of infantry alone stood firm, under the direction of Colonel Gardiner, but in a few minutes the whole were cut down, or swept off the field, and there was only a confused flight, in which the broadswords of the clans were used with unsparing vigour. Nearly the whole infantry, 1400 in number, were either killed or taken prisoners, and the military-chest, and

other stores of the army, became a prize to the victors. Gardiner, a man of highly virtuous character, and a good officer, was amongst the slain. Charles returned next day to Edinburgh in triumph; and the fruits of his success were soon seen in the large accessions of force which he received, including the Earls of Kelly and Kilmarnock, Lords Elcho, Pittligo, Ogilvie, Balmerino, and other noble and distinguished persons.

313. Such was the defenceless condition of England at this juncture, and such the consternation inspired by the defeat of Cope, that if Charles could have immediately led four or five thousand men into that country, he might have easily taken possession of the capital. He was detained six weeks before he could collect the requisite forces, and in the mean time troops more numerous in proportion were brought over from Flanders to oppose his progress. He commenced his march, November 1, and entered England at the western border. Carlisle, after holding out three days, surrendered to him. He pressed on through Westmoreland, disregarding a small army under General Wade at Newcastle, and, November 29, entered Manchester. He expected that before this time the English Jacobites would have been flocking to his standard; but they still waited to see the risk of such a movement somewhat lessened. Two hundred recruits, whom he raised at Manchester, and placed under the command of a Catholic gentleman named Townly, were all the addition he could gain to his army in England. To oppose his march, an army of 10,000 men was now rendezvoused in Staffordshire, under the Duke of Cumberland. Nevertheless, he still pushed on, hoping that Wales would produce some considerable reinforcements. By a dexterous movement, he eluded Cumberland's army, and, December 4, reached Derby, where he was only a hundred and thirty miles from the metropolis.

314. The principal officers of the Highland army now saw so much danger in a further advance, that, after a day's halt at Derby, they determined to return to Scotland. In this resolution they were violently opposed by the Prince, who appears to have made up his mind to every hazard, but was unable to control men who rather might be described

as his friends than as his officers. The retreat was commenced, December 6; and with such skill and secrecy was it conducted, that the army of the Duke of Cumberland never came up with the insurgents. A garrison, which had been left in Carlisle, surrendered to the Duke, who, being recalled on the rumour of a French invasion on the southern coast of England, left General Hawley to prosecute the war in Scotland.

315. Prince Charles conducted his forces by Glasgow to Stirling, where he was joined by large reinforcements from Perth, while the English general concentrated his troops in Edinburgh. The two armies, nearly equal in number, came to an action, January 17, 1746, at Falkirk, which ended in the disgraceful retreat of the royal army. The prince was unable to make any use of this victory, and soon after found it necessary to withdraw his forces to the neighbourhood of Inverness, where he spent the remainder of the winter. The Duke of Cumberland now returned to put himself at the head of the royal troops, which had been augmented by 6000 auxiliaries under the Prince of Hesse. During the months of February and March, the Highland army was cooped up within its own territory, by the Hessians at Perth, and the royal troops at Aberdeen. At length, April 16, Prince Charles met the English army in an open moor at Culloden, near Inverness, and experienced a total overthrow. He had himself the greatest difficulty in escaping from the country, and the Highlands were subjected for several months to the horrors of military violence in all its worst forms.

316. To complete the subjugation of this primitive people, the hereditary jurisdictions under which they and the rest of the people of Scotland still lived, and by which the nobles and gentry were enabled to administer justice at their own discretion, were abolished by act of parliament. Another act put an end to the tenure of ward-holdings, by which the land-proprietors were enabled to command the personal services, in peace and war, of those who lived on their estates. A third act prohibited the use of tartan and the ancient Highland fashion of clothes, which were supposed to have the effect of keeping alive the warlike spirit of the mountaineers. The

two former of these measures, in connection with the suppression of the Stuart cause, and some other circumstances, produced a marked improvement in the social state of the Scottish people. The government, it must be remarked, had hitherto acted towards Scotland in a harsh and partial spirit. The Highland families and others had been excluded from public employment, while their hereditary enemies of the Whig party, who found their own interest in such a state of things, were appointed to watch over them. Suspected and hated by the government, and governed by a faction, they had every temptation to continue in adherence to the exiled family. But when the government began to treat them in a milder spirit, and admitted them to the army and other branches of the public service, their naturally generous and loyal feelings were turned as zealously in favour of the new dynasty as they ever had been in favour of the old. The middle of the eighteenth century may be described as the time when Scotland, after a long period of sloth and poverty, first began to make advances towards that equality with England, in respect of comfort and prosperity, which it has since attained.

Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.

317. DURING the remainder of the war in which Britain and other powers were now engaged with France, the latter was generally successful by land, and unfortunate at sea, the contrary being the case with Britain. It is indeed a remarkable fact, that, from the time of Marlborough to that of Wellington, Great Britain hardly ever succeeded in any military, or failed in any naval, enterprise. In 1748, the two countries found, after nine years of contention, that their losses were equal, though in different departments of their strength. Thirty millions had been added to the national debt of Britain, and France had expended an equal sum. They therefore agreed, by a treaty formed at Aix-la-Chapelle, mutually to restore their respective conquests, and to go back to exactly the same condition in which they stood before the war. A more signal illustration could have scarcely been held forth of the important truth—that war is to the parties

in general only a means of waste and loss, and is very apt to end in disappointment even to the victor

Colonies and Dependencies of Britain—The Seven Years' War.

318. For several years after this period the national resources underwent rapid improvement. The most respectable minister who immediately followed Walpole, was the Honourable Henry Pelham, First Lord of the Treasury and Chancellor of the Exchequer, whose commercial and financial schemes were usually very successful. Since the reign of Elizabeth, the British had been active in planting and rearing colonies; a means of national wealth first prosecuted with distinguished success by the Portuguese in the fifteenth century, and afterwards by the Dutch. The British colonies in North America chiefly took their rise in the reigns of James I. and Charles I. The government having conferred upon them political constitutions, in which there were some liberal principles, they became a favourite resort for the English Dissenters, and others discontented with the institutions of their native country, who here formed a society accordant with their own notions, and became the parents of a hardy, pious, and industrious nation. The English establishments in the West Indian islands were of somewhat later date, the earliest being Barbadoes (1624), and the half of St Christopher's (1625). Soon after, some other small islands were added, and in 1655 Jamaica was taken by Cromwell from the Spaniards. The West India colonists at first cultivated little besides cocoa and indigo; but before the conclusion of the seventeenth century, they had introduced the sugar-cane, which has since been their chief and most lucrative product. In these colonies, as well as in those of North America, the introduction of African negroes as slaves was unfortunately allowed and encouraged by the mother-country, for facilitating labour.

319. In the reign of James I., a company of merchants, which finally settled, in 1698, into the association known by the name of the East India Company, began to form trading

stations or factories on various parts of the coast of Hindustan, where the Portuguese and Dutch had already established a lucrative trade. This portion of the earth had been inhabited for many ages by a partially civilised people, acknowledging the sway of an emperor of Mohammedan descent, beneath whom there was something like a feudal gradation of provincial governors. The jealousy of the Dutch, and the rudeness and turbulence of the native rulers, threw great difficulties in the way of the East India Company; but at the close of the reign of King William III., they had gained a footing in the country at three grand points, and established what were called the Presidencies of Madras, Bombay, and Bengal, where their general affairs were administered by able officers. An embassy to Delhi, in 1713, obtained from the emperor, among other advantages, an exemption of their goods from duty in passing through the provinces of Bengal, and they consequently became the principal carriers from the ports of the Ganges. During the ensuing thirty years, they had prospered very rapidly, and they now possessed the following settlements:—Bombay; Dabal, in the province of Coucan; Carwar, in the province of North Canara; Tellicherry, on the Malabar coast; Alengo, on the coast of Travancore; Fort St David; Madras; Visigapatam and Balasore, on the Coromandel coast; and Calcutta.

320. The French had also endeavoured to obtain a share of the trade of Hindustan, and they now had settlements at Chandernagore, near Calcutta, and Pondicherry, on the coast of the Carnatic. The hostility of the French and English was transferred, with even increased force, to this distant region; and in 1746, the former attacked and took Madras. At the Peace of Aix-la-Chapellè, this settlement was restored to the English; but a disputed succession in the native Carnatic government soon after renewed the contentions of the two parties of settlers, one of whom sided with one pretender to the sovereignty, and the other with the opposite party, in the hope of rising to a commercial supremacy. In 1751 and 1752, a party of English troops, small in comparison with the armies employed in Europe, and conducted by a gentleman named Clive, who had recently been a clerk, obtained a series of victories over the opposite party, while

peace reigned between the respective nations at home. The courts of France and England lost no time in putting a stop to these hostilities by a treaty, which was designed to give an equal dominion to the trading companies of the two countries on the east coast of the Indian peninsula, but never was definitively settled.

321. False maxims in commerce were the chief cause of the disputes of the English and French. A colony was at that time regarded as a thing which existed for the exclusive benefit of the country which had settled it, and accordingly the merchants of no other state were allowed to have any intercourse with it. Other jealous notions of the same kind were entertained; while the French, who had never been very successful in establishing settlements, had a maxim peculiar to themselves, and very unfavourable to peace—that it was best to endeavour to seize the colonies of other nations after they had been fully formed. After the peace of 1748, having been baffled in many schemes of continental conquest, this lively nation began to turn their thoughts towards commercial wealth, which they perceived to be the foundation of that strength which Britain had displayed in so many contests. Excluded by Britain from many of the accustomed channels of commerce, they conceived themselves justified in commencing, from their settlements in the East Indies and Canada, an aggressive system with reference to the neighbouring possessions of the British; in particular, they drew a line of forts along the back-settlements of the whole range of the British American colonies, from the Gulf of St Lawrence to the Mississippi, so as to prevent the settlers from advancing beyond the Appalachian mountains.

322. For two or three years the British government suffered these aggressions, and even insults of a more decided nature, to pass unresented; but at length it was judged necessary to proclaim war. A campaign of a novel and difficult character was opened in North America, for the purpose of driving the French from their forts. All the first movements were attended with defeat and disaster. The French had gained the exclusive affection of the native Indians, who proved a dangerous and barbarous enemy to the British. Several of the forts were attacked,

but without success : in the assault upon Ticonderoga, two thousand men were killed. At length, on the accession of Mr William Pitt (afterwards Earl of Chatham) to the office of Secretary of State, a more auspicious era commenced. The British troops and provincials became more experienced in the nature of the service. One after another, the principal forts fell into their hands ; and a diversion was created by an attack upon Canada. In September 1759, General Wolfe reduced the town and fort of Quebec, though at the expense of his own life ; and the whole colony soon after submitted to the British arms. Meanwhile, Colonel Clive had been equally successful in the East Indies. He had destroyed the French settlement at Pondicherry, thereby securing to his country the whole coast of Coromandel ; and by his famous victory at Plassey (June 23, 1757), over a combination of French and native forces, he laid the foundation of the great territorial power which the British have since gained in Hindustan. Thus it will be seen that the French were punished for the improper attempts to extend their colonies, by losing those which they formerly possessed.

323. While Britain was thus successful in two remote quarters of the world, she experienced a different fortune in Europe. Austria, Russia, and Poland, had combined with France against the new and rising power of Prussia, which was at present directed by Frederick II., commonly called Frederick the Great. Britain on this occasion became the ally of the Prussian monarch, not from any regard to her own interests, but in order that the king might be able to protect his Hanoverian dominions. Immense sums of money were raised from the British people, for the purpose of paying the troops of those very countries which the king was anxious to defend : the Duke of Cumberland was appointed their commander. This prince was so unfortunate (September 1757) as to bring an army of 40,000 men into an angular piece of country, from which there was no escaping, so that the whole were obliged to lay down their arms to the French, who then became masters of Hanover. Notwithstanding this failure on the part of his ally, Frederick was able, by his extraordinary military genius, and by British subsidies, to defend his dominions for several years against all the forces that

Austria, France, and Russia, could bring against him. In the midst of this war (October 25, 1760), George II. died suddenly, in the seventy-seventh year of his age, and was succeeded by his grandson **GEORGE THE THIRD**, then only in his twenty-third year.

Miscellaneous Circumstances connected with the Reign of George II.

324. THE chief domestic event of the reign of George II. was the rise of the religious sect called Methodists. The church had for a considerable time been in a languid state; amongst the community there was little religious feeling of a fervid character; and at no previous time were there so many conspicuous writers against the main doctrines of Christianity. John Wesley, a clergyman of the established church, and several other individuals of an enthusiastic turn of mind, were prompted by these circumstances to attempt to rouse a more zealous piety amongst the people; and in this object they were surprisingly successful. Another clergyman named Whitefield, gifted with oratorical powers which gave him great command over the feelings of an audience, proved of much service as an itinerant preacher in working this reformation. The consequence of these exertions was the organisation of a new religious body, generally called Methodists, comprehending a vast number of congregations in all parts of the kingdom, as well as in the American colonies.

325. Newspapers first acquired political importance in this reign. They originated in the time of the Commonwealth, but none of a regular periodical nature appeared till after the Restoration, when a busy writer, named Roger L'Estrange, established in London a weekly one called 'The Intelligencer.' Till the Revolution, such small and unimportant newspapers as existed, were trammelled by a licensing power and censorship. When these restrictions were removed, newspapers increased in number, till, in 1709, they were again restricted by the imposition of a penny stamp. In those days newspapers were chiefly conducted by a set of mean and poor writers, to whom the term 'Grub Street authors' was generally applied, from their living in that wretched part of

London. The influence which newspapers were calculated to have over the public mind, was first recognised by Sir Robert Walpole, who, while he never thought of giving the least encouragement to literature on its own account, liberally pensioned various editors who supported his government. About the beginning of this reign, there were, in London, one daily paper, fifteen three times a week, and one twice a week, besides a few country papers. A monthly pamphlet, begun in 1731 by Edward Cave, a London bookseller, under the name of the 'Gentleman's Magazine,' was composed of the best articles from the newspapers; and thus originated the periodical works termed magazines, which are now conspicuous as vehicles of light literature and political discussion.

326. The peculiar literary genius of the age was shewn in the fictitious prose writings of Fielding, Smollett, and Sterne, and in the pictures of Hogarth, all of which represent the national character in its greatest breadth. The novels of Richardson are equally accurate as descriptions of manners, but contain no trace of the same humour. Next in distinction to these writings, must be placed the essays of John Hawkesworth and Samuel Johnson, the latter of whom did a great service to literature in compiling a dictionary of the English language. James Thomson, William Collins, and Thomas Gray, rank high as poets. Carte and Echard were respectable historical writers, and philosophy was cultivated by Francis Hutcheson and David Hartley. Drs Conyers Middleton, Joseph Butler, and Isaac Watts, were the principal writers on religious subjects.

George III.—Bute Administration—Peace of 1763.

327. Soon after his accession, George III. espoused the Princess Charlotte of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, by whom he had a large family. One of his earliest political measures was to confer one of the state-secretaryships upon the Earl of Bute, a Scottish nobleman of Tory or Jacobite predilections, who had been his preceptor, and possessed a great influence over his mind. This, with other alterations, infused a peaceful disposition into his majesty's councils, which was not much

relished by Mr Pitt. That minister, having secretly discovered that Spain was about to join France against Britain, and being thwarted in the line of policy which he consequently thought it necessary to assume, retired with a pension, and a peerage to his wife; after which the ministry was rendered still less of a warlike temper. A negotiation for peace was entered into with France, which offered, for that end, to give up almost all her colonial possessions. The demands of the British were, however, rather more exorbitant than France expected, and not only was the treaty broken off, but Spain commenced those hostilities which Mr Pitt had foretold. Nevertheless, Britain continued that splendid career of conquest, which, except at the beginning, had been her fortune during the whole of this war. In a very few months, Spain lost Havannah, Manilla, and all the Philippine Isles. The forces of that country were also driven out of Portugal, which they had unjustly invaded. At sea the British fleets reigned everywhere triumphant, and at no former period was the country in so proud a situation. The ministry, however, were sensible that war, even with all this good fortune, was a losing game; and they therefore, much against the will of the nation, concluded a peace in February 1763.

328. By this treaty, Great Britain gave up a certain portion of her conquests, in exchange for others which had been wrested from her; but she was nevertheless a gainer to an immense amount. She acquired from the French, Canada; that part of Louisiana east of the Mississippi, Cape Breton, Senegal, the islands of Grenada, Dominica, St Vincent's, and Tobago, with all the acquisitions which the French had made upon the Coromandel coast in the East Indies since 1749. From Spain she acquired Minorca, East and West Florida, with certain privileges of value. The continental states in alliance with Great Britain were also left as they had been. These advantages on the part of Great Britain had been purchased at the expense of an addition of sixty millions to the national debt (which now amounted in all to £133,959,270); but as the country had been dragged unwillingly into the war, this loss is only to be considered in the light of a misfortune, which the evil dispositions of neighbouring powers had rendered unavoidable.

Transactions in Ireland.

329. SINCE the pacification at Limerick, Ireland had been ruled exclusively by the Protestant party, who, under the influence of feelings arising from local and religious antipathies, had visited the Catholics with many severities. The oath which excluded Catholics from office had been followed, in 1698, by an act of the Irish parliament, commanding all Romish priests to leave the kingdom under the penalty of transportation, a return from which was to be punishable by death. Another law decreed forfeiture of property and civil rights to all who should send their children abroad to be educated in the Catholic faith.

330. After the death of William III., who was much opposed to severities on account of religion, acts of still greater rigour were passed for preventing the growth of Popery. Any child of a Roman Catholic, who should declare himself a Protestant, was entitled to become the heir of his estate, the father merely holding it for his lifetime, and having no command over it. Catholics were made incapable of succeeding to Protestants, and lands, passing over them, were to go to the next Protestant heir. Catholic parents were prohibited from being guardians to their own children; no Protestant, possessing property, was to be permitted to marry a Catholic; and Catholics were rendered incapable of purchasing landed property, or enjoying long leases. These measures naturally rendered the Catholics discontented subjects, and led to much turbulence. The common people of that persuasion, being denied all access to justice, took it into their own hands, and acquired those lawless habits for which they have since been remarkable. Treachery, cruelty, and all the lower passions, were called into vigorous exercise. Even the Protestants, for their own sakes, were often obliged to connive at the evasion of laws so extremely severe, and which introduced much difficulty into all dealings with Catholics; but when any Protestant wished to be revenged upon a Catholic, or to extort money from him, he found in these laws a ready instrument for his purpose. By an additional act, in 1726, it was ordained that a Roman Catholic priest, marrying a Protestant to a Catholic, should

suffer death ; and, in order that legal redress might be still less accessible to the Catholics, it was enacted, in 1728, that no one should be entitled to practise as an attorney who had not been two years a Protestant.

331. The passing of a bill in 1719 by the English parliament, declaring its power to legislate for Ireland, occasioned general dissatisfaction, and caused the rise of a patriotic party in the parliament and people of Ireland, who professed to look to the advantage of the country, as distinguished from that of Great Britain. The discontent of the Tory party mingled with this spirit ; and the celebrated Swift, in 1724, blew it into a flame by his severe pamphlets, called 'The Drapier's Letters,' which professedly decried a new coinage of halfpence, but were in reality aimed at the English ministry. Deceptive as the aid of Swift certainly was, the very appearance of a countenancing of popular objects by a man of note and a clergyman of the Established Church, acted so powerfully on the feelings of the common people of Ireland, that he was for some time the most honoured man in the kingdom.

332. The discontents of the Catholics continued unabated, and the contentions of the patriotic party with the adherents of the English ministry were carried on with the utmost keenness in parliament, when the rebellion in Scotland (1745) alarmed the government for the loyalty of Ireland. The Earl of Chesterfield, celebrated for his literary productions, was, in this exigency, sent for a short time as Lord-lieutenant, and allowed to hold forth all possible encouragement to the Catholics and patriotic party. By discountenancing party distinctions, and giving the Catholics the full protection of the laws, he so effectually soothed and tranquillised the country, that, while the neighbouring Protestant kingdoms exhibited an army seeking the restoration of a Catholic prince, Ireland, though full of Christians of that persuasion, and bound to the Jacobite cause by many endeared associations, remained perfectly faithful to the Hanover dynasty. When the danger was past, the earl was recalled, and the former system resumed. The struggles of the patriots with the English ministerial party were continued with unabated violence down to the death of George II., without producing any marked

benefit to Ireland, although at one time the former party gained an ascendancy in the native parliament.

Case of Mr Wilkes.

333. EVER since the accession of the Brunswick family in 1714, the government had been chiefly conducted by the Whig party, who formed a very powerful portion of the aristocracy of England. Walpole, Pelham, Newcastle, and Pitt, had all ruled chiefly through the strength of this great body, who, till a period subsequent to the rebellion of 1745, seem to have had the support of the more influential portion of the people. After that period, when the Stuart claims ceased to have any effect in keeping the crown in check, a division appears to have grown up between the government and the people, which was manifested in various forms even before the demise of George II., but broke out in a very violent manner during the early years of his successor. George III., who had imbibed high notions of the royal prerogative from the Earl of Bute, shewed, from the beginning of his reign, an anxious desire to extend the power of the crown, to shake off the influence of the great Whig families, and keep popular force of all kinds within strict limits.

334. A stranger, with no connection in the country, a favourite, and moreover a man of unprepossessing manners, the Earl of Bute had neither the support of the aristocracy nor of the people. He was assailed in parliament, and through the newspapers, with the most violent abuse, the unpopular peace furnishing a powerful topic against him. To this storm he at length yielded, by retiring (April 8, 1763).

335. Among the public writers who assailed the ministry, none was more virulent than Mr John Wilkes, member for Aylesbury, and editor of a paper entitled the *North Briton*. Mr George Grenville, who succeeded Bute, commenced his career by prosecuting Wilkes for a libel, contained in the forty-fifth number of his paper, in which he had directly accused his majesty of falsehood. The king's messenger, being provided with a general warrant against the editor, printers, and publishers of the *North Briton*, entered the house of Mr

Wilkes, and apprehended him. After being examined before the secretaries of state, he was committed to the Tower, and his papers were seized and sealed up. A few days after, he was brought to Westminster Hall by *habeas corpus*, and released by Chief-justice Pratt, in consideration of his being a member of parliament. The parliament ordered the seditious paper to be burnt by the hands of the common hangman—an operation that produced a riot, not in itself dangerous, but serving to discover the angry spirit of the populace. Mr Wilkes was soon after expelled from the House of Commons, and found it convenient to retire to the continent. One result of his case was favourable to the popular cause: a prosecution which he instituted against the secretary of state, on the plea that his seizure was illegal, terminated in a verdict of damages, and a declaration by Chief-justice Pratt, that general warrants were inconsistent with the laws of England.

American Stamp Act.

336. THE administration of Mr Grenville is memorable for the first attempt to tax the American colonies. In March 1765, an act for imposing stamps on those countries was passed, almost without comment, and by a great majority; no one apparently anticipating the resistance it was to meet with. The people of America were the descendants, in many instances, of persons who had fled from their native country in order to enjoy more liberal institutions in a world of their own forming. They might in some measure be described as a more liberalised class of Englishmen, with none of those aristocratic grades and institutions which served to keep the popular spirit in check at home. The attempt to subject them to taxation, while they had no representation, real or supposed, in the House of Commons, appeared to them as the commencement of a system which, if not opposed at the first, might in time reduce them to a kind of slavery. They therefore combined almost universally to resist the introduction of the stamped paper by which the tax was to be raised. Resolutions were passed in the various assemblies of the states, protesting against the assumed right of the British

legislature to tax them. The act itself was publicly and ignominiously burnt. The stamps, on arriving, were seized by an enraged multitude, and destroyed. Those who had accepted commissions to act as distributors, were forced by public oath to renounce all concern in them. In short, partly by popular violence, and partly by the declarations issued by the local legislative assemblies, the object of the act was completely defeated.

337. The conduct of the Americans produced great embarrassment in his majesty's counsels; and it was long debated whether there would be most disadvantage in forcing the acceptance of the stamps, or in giving way to the demands of a people almost in open rebellion. It was at length agreed to repeal the act, but to accompany this favour by a declaration of the right of Great Britain to impose taxes on her colonies. The Americans appeared satisfied with the relief they had thus obtained from the immediate pressure of taxation, and did not seem much to regard the accompanying declaration, which was looked upon only as a salvo for the injured honour of the government.

338. Between the Stamp Act and its repeal, a change had taken place in the administration: the latter measure was the act of a Whig ministry under the Marquis of Rockingham, which, however, did not long continue in power, being supplanted by one in which Mr Pitt, now created Earl of Chatham, held a conspicuous place. The second Pitt administration was less popular than the first: the Earl of Chesterfield, reflecting on the title given to the minister, at the same time that he sunk in general esteem, called his rise a *fall upstairs*. All the ministries of this period laboured under a popular suspicion, probably not well founded, that they only obeyed the will of the king, while the Earl of Bute, as secret adviser behind the throne, was the real, though irresponsible minister.

339. At the suggestion of Mr Charles Townshend, a member of the Earl of Chatham's cabinet, it was resolved, in 1767, to impose taxes on the Americans in a new shape; namely, upon British goods imported into the colonies, for which there was some show of precedent. An act for imposing duties on tea, glass, and colours, was accordingly

passed with little opposition. Soon after this, Mr Townshend died, and the Earl of Chatham, who had been prevented by illness from taking any share in the business, resigned. The Americans met the new burdens with the same violent opposition as formerly.

The Wilkes Tumults.

340. EARLY in 1768, a new administration was formed under the Duke of Grafton, a pupil of Chatham, and soon after a new parliament was called. At the general election, Mr Wilkes reappeared in England, though a sentence of outlawry still stood against him. He even ventured to become candidate for the county of Middlesex, where he was returned by a large majority. Having previously surrendered to the jurisdiction of the King's Bench, his outlawry was reversed; but by virtue of the verdicts which two courts had given against him, he was subjected to a fine and two years' imprisonment. On his arrest, Mr Wilkes quietly committed himself to the officers of justice, but was forcibly rescued by the populace; and in a riot subsequent to this violence, a young man, who had no participation in the tumult, was killed. During his imprisonment, Mr Wilkes was formally expelled the House, on the pretext that, by the vote of censure passed by the preceding parliament, he was for ever disqualified from being a representative of the people. This decision incensed a great portion of the community, and the case became identified in their estimation with the liberties of the nation itself. Four times did the county of Middlesex return Mr Wilkes; but the rival candidate, Colonel Luttrell, with only a fourth of the votes, was accepted by the House.

341. These proceedings occasioned many keen debates in the House of Commons, where an Opposition of much talent and ardour of purpose now took up every popular question. Tumults of a dangerous character were constantly taking place; the cry of 'Wilkes and Liberty' resounded everywhere, excepting only in Scotland, his scurrility against the Scotch having rendered him generally detested in that quarter; even the municipal bodies and corporations,

though usually not easily moved by popular objects, became zealous partisans of Mr Wilkes, and thought it their duty to remonstrate with the king, on the high hand with which his government was conducted. At this agitated time, an unknown writer, styling himself **A.D. 1769.** Junius, commenced a series of letters in a newspaper, animadverting in the most virulent manner on both the men and measures of the government. These compositions were the more remarkable, as, from the force and elegance of their style, they were evidently the production of some person, not only far above the usual character of newspaper writers, but fitted to rank with the first intellects of his day. The publisher of the newspaper was prosecuted for publishing them; but the author remained concealed, and his name has never yet been ascertained.

Ministry of Lord North—The City of London's Remonstrance.

342. At the opening of parliament in January 1770, it was expected that the conspicuous topic in the king's speech would be the Middlesex election. The surprise was general, therefore, when it was found that the king did not make the least reference to the troubles respecting Mr Wilkes. The Opposition were enraged at this oversight, and moved, as an amendment to the address, that an inquiry ought to be made into the causes of the prevailing discontents; on which occasion, Charles James Fox, afterwards celebrated as a political leader, made his first speech in parliament. The amendment was negatived by 254 against 138, which shewed that the king was quite secure of the support of the House of Commons.

343. At this time, the Duke of Grafton retired from the cabinet, and his place was supplied by Lord North, son of the Earl of Guildford. The new ministry was the tenth which had existed during as many years, but the first in which the king might be considered as completely free of the great Whig families, who, by their parliamentary influence, had possessed the chief power since the Revolution.

This was the beginning of a series of Tory administrations, which, with few and short intervals, conducted the affairs of the nation down to the close of the reign of George IV.

344. The supposed injury which the cause of free election had sustained from the decision of the House of Commons, still for a time agitated the public mind. Forty-eight peers, including all the great Whig chiefs (Devonshire, Rockingham, Grosvenor, Fitzwilliam, Tankerville, King, &c.), besides the Earl of Chatham, made a public declaration that they should not cease their efforts till they had obtained full justice to the electors of Britain. The city of London, and some other corporations of note, presented remonstrances to the king on the same subject. The policy of the king and cabinet was to wear out the public fervour by dignified silence. No notice was therefore taken of these remonstrances. The city then prepared another address, in which, after lamenting that they had apparently incurred the royal displeasure, they renewed their remonstrances, and prayed for a dissolution of parliament. On this occasion, the king said that he 'should be wanting to the public, as well as to himself, if he made such a use of the prerogative as was inconsistent with the interest, and dangerous to the constitution of the kingdom.'

345. An extraordinary circumstance then took place. The Lord Mayor, Beckford, a man of fearless spirit, asked leave to reply. In the confusion of the moment, permission was granted. He then, with great fluency and self-command, delivered an address, concluding in these words:—'Permit me, sire, further to observe, that whoever has already dared, or shall hereafter endeavour, by false insinuations and suggestions, to alienate your majesty's affections from your loyal subjects in general, and from the city of London in particular, and to withdraw your confidence from, and regard for, your people, is an enemy to your majesty's person and family, a violator of the public peace, and a betrayer of our happy constitution as it was established at the glorious and necessary Revolution.' At this address the king reddened with anger, but made no reply, and the Lord Mayor and his train, after a brief space, with-

drew. The city afterwards marked their admiration of Mr Beckford's conduct, by rearing a statue to him in Guildhall, on the pedestal of which they caused his address to be inscribed.

346. Under the policy of the king, the Wilkes agitations soon subsided. In reality, the case of this demagogue, and even the constitutional question involved in his expulsion from the House of Commons, had been all along estimated far above their real value and importance.

The American War of Independence.

347. MEANWHILE, the remonstrances of the American colonists had induced the North administration to give up all the new taxes, excepting only that on tea, which it was determined to keep up, as an assertion of the right of parliament to tax the colonies. In America, this last remaining tax continued to excite as much discontent as the whole had formerly done, for it was the principle of a right to impose taxes which they found fault with, and not the amount exacted from them. Their discontent with the mother-country was found to affect trade considerably, and the British merchants were anxious to bring the dispute to a close. The government was then induced to grant such a drawback from the British duty on tea, as enabled the East India Company to offer the article in America at a lower rate than formerly, so that the American duty, which was only threepence a pound, did not at least affect the price. It was never doubted that this expedient would satisfy the colonists, and large shipments of tea were accordingly sent out from the British ports. But the principle of the right to tax still lurked under the concession, and the result only shewed how little the sentiments of the Americans were understood.

348. The approach of the tea cargoes excited them in a manner totally unlooked for in Britain. At New York and Philadelphia, the cargoes were forbidden to land. In Charleston, where they were permitted to land, they were put into stores, and prohibited from being sold. At Boston,

a ship-load, which had been introduced into the harbour, was seized by a lawless mob, and tossed into the sea. This last act of violence was resented by the passing of a bill in parliament for interdicting all commercial intercourse with the port of Boston, and another for taking away the legislative assembly of the state of Massachusetts. The former measure was easily obviated by local arrangements; and in reference to the latter, a congress of representatives from the various states met at Philadelphia, in September 1774, when it was asserted that the exclusive power of legislation, in all cases of taxation and internal policy, resided in the provincial legislatures. The same assembly denounced other grievances, which have not here been particularly adverted to, especially an act of the British legislature for trying Americans, for treasonable practices, in England. The congress also framed a covenant of non-intercourse, by which the whole utility of the colonies to the mother-country, as objects of trading speculation, was at once laid prostrate. The colonists still avowed a desire to be reconciled, on the condition of a repeal of the obnoxious statutes. But the government had now resolved to attempt the reduction of the colonists by force of arms. Henceforth, every proposal from America was treated with a proud silence on the part of the British monarch and his advisers.

349. The war opened in summer 1775, by skirmishes between the British troops and armed provincials, for the possession of certain magazines. At the beginning, there seemed no hope of the contest being protracted beyond one campaign. The population of the colonies was at this time under three millions, and they were greatly inferior in discipline and appointments to the British troops. They possessed, however, an indomitable zeal in the cause they had agreed to defend, and their soldiery fought with the advantage of being in the country of their friends. At Bunker's Hill, near Boston (June 1775), they made a valiant resistance to the British troops, of whom between two and three hundred were killed. At the end of one year, the British government was surprised to find that no progress had been made towards a reduction of the Americans, and sent out an offer of pardon to the

colonists, on condition that they would lay down their arms—a proposal which was only met with ridicule.

350. On the 4th July 1776, the American Congress took the decisive step of a declaration of their independence, embodying their sentiments in a document remarkable for its pathos and solemnity. During the next two campaigns, the slender forces of the new republic were hardly able anywhere to face the large and well-appointed armies of Great Britain. Much misery was endured by this hardy people in resisting the British arms. Besides the civilised soldiers brought against them, they had to protect themselves from the savage Indians, whom the British ministers had deemed it proper to bribe and debauch into their service, and whose warfare was one of extermination. Notwithstanding every disadvantage and many defeats, America remained unsubdued, to the astonishment of all Europe, but especially of Great Britain, her king, her ministers, and her people, the last of whom had reflected less upon the justice of their cause against America, than upon the hopes which were held forth of the cheap and speedy conquest of the country.

351. The first serious alarm for the success of the contest in America, was communicated in December 1777, by intelligence of the surrender of an English army under General Burgoyne at Saratoga. In the House of Commons, the ministers acknowledged this disaster with marks of deep dejection, but still professed to entertain sanguine hopes, from the vigour with which the large towns throughout Britain were now raising men at their own expense for the service of the government. Mr Fox, the leader of the Opposition, made a motion for the discontinuance of the war, which was lost by 165 to 259, a much narrower majority than any which the ministry had before reckoned in the Lower House.

352. In proportion to the dejection of the government, was the elation of the American Congress. Little more than two years before, the British sovereign and ministers had treated the petitions of the colonists with silent contempt; but such had been the current of events, that, in 1778, they found it necessary, in order to appease the popular discontent, to send out commissioners, almost for the purpose of begging a peace. As if to avenge themselves for the indignities of 1775, the

Americans received these commissioners with the like haughtiness ; and, being convinced that they could secure their independence, would listen to no proposals in which the acknowledgment of that independence, and the withdrawal of the British troops, did not occupy the first place. The ministers, unwilling to submit to such terms, resolved to prosecute the war, holding forth to the public, as the best defence of their conduct, the necessity of curbing the spirit of insubordination, both in America and at home, which they described as threatening the overturn of the most sacred of the national institutions. The rise of Great Britain during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, in wealth, and military and naval power, had been observed by many of the surrounding states with no small degree of jealousy. France, in particular, had not yet forgiven the triumphant peace which Britain had dictated in 1763. The Americans, therefore, by their emissary, the celebrated Benjamin Franklin, found no great difficulty in forming an alliance with France, in which the latter power acknowledged the independence of the colonists, and promised to send them large auxiliary forces. Viewing the distressed state to which Britain was reduced by the contest, and concluding that the time had arrived to strike a decisive blow for her humiliation, Spain soon after declared war against her ; and, in 1780, Holland was added to the number of her enemies. Russia then put herself at the head of what was called an Armed Neutrality, embracing Sweden and Denmark, the object of which was indirectly hostile to Britain. So tremendous was the force reared against Britain in 1779, even before all these powers had entered into hostilities, that it required about three hundred thousand armed men, three hundred armed vessels, and twenty millions of money annually, merely to protect her from her enemies. Even her wonted superiority at sea seemed to have deserted her ; and for some time the people beheld the unwonted spectacle of a hostile fleet riding in the Channel, which there was no adequate means of opposing.

353. It was now obvious to the whole nation, that this contest, upon whatever grounds it commenced, was a great national misfortune ; and the Opposition in parliament began

to gain considerably in strength. After some votes, in which the ministerial majorities appeared to be gradually lessening, Mr Dunning, on the 6th of April 1780, carried, by a majority of eighteen, a motion, 'that the influence of the crown had increased, was increasing, and ought to be diminished.' This was justly looked upon as a severe censure of the government, considering that the House of Commons was not altogether a popular body, but included many who had seats there only through the influence of the crown, or by the favour of the nobility and gentry.

The London Riots of 1780.

354. In the year 1778, an act had been passed, relieving the Roman Catholics in England from some of the severe penal statutes formerly enacted against them. The apprehension of a similar act for Scotland caused the people of that country to form an immense number of associations, with a view to opposing it; and, in the early part of 1779, the popular spirit broke out at Edinburgh and Glasgow in several alarming riots, during which one or two Catholic chapels, and some houses belonging to Catholics, were pillaged and burnt. An extensive Protestant Association was also formed in England, to endeavour to procure the repeal of the English act. This body was chiefly led by Lord George Gordon, a son of the late Duke of Gordon, and member of the House of Commons. In June 1780, an immense mob assembled in London to accompany Lord George to the House of Commons, where he was to present a petition against the act, signed by 120,000 persons. His motion for the repeal of the act being rejected by a vast majority, he came out to the lobby and harangued the crowd in violent terms, suggesting to them similar acts to those which had taken place in Scotland. The mob accordingly proceeded to demolish the chapels of the foreign ambassadors. Meeting with no effectual resistance, for the magistrates of the city were afraid to take decisive measures against them, they attacked Newgate, released the prisoners, and set the prison on fire. The new prison at Clerkenwell, the King's Bench and Fleet Prisons, and the New Bridewell, were treated in

like manner. At one time, thirty-six fires were seen throughout the city. The mob had uncontrolled possession of the streets for five days, pillaging, burning, and demolishing; until the king in council determined to authorise the military to put them down by force of arms. Tranquillity was then restored, but not before upwards of 400 persons were killed and wounded. Many of the ringleaders were convicted and executed. Lord George Gordon was tried for high-treason, but acquitted on a plea of insanity, which his subsequent life shewed to be well founded. Similar outrages were attempted in other cities, but prevented by the vigour of the magistrates. The chief sufferers from these riots were the party who aimed at political reforms. On the other hand, the king obtained increased respect, in consequence of the firmness he had shewn in taking measures for the suppression of the riots.

Conclusion of the American War—Rockingham Administration.

355. THE states of North and South Carolina, which contained a larger proportion of persons friendly to the British crown than any of the northern states, had submitted, in 1780, to a British army under General Clinton. Next year, the greater part of the troops which had been left in those states were conducted northward by Lord Cornwallis, in the hope of making further conquests; but the consequence was that General Greene, after a series of conflicts in which he greatly distressed various parties of the British troops, regained both Carolinas, while Lord Cornwallis took up a position at Yorktown in Virginia. At this time, General Washington, the American commander-in-chief, to whose extraordinary sagacity and purity of motives the colonists chiefly owed their independence, was threatening General Clinton's army at New York. Clinton tamely saw him retire to the southward, believing that he only meant to make a feint, in order to draw away the British from New York, when he in reality meant to attack Cornwallis. On the 29th of September (1781), Yorktown was invested by this and other corps of Americans and French; and in three weeks

more, the British batteries being completely silenced, Lord Cornwallis surrendered, with his whole army. With this event, though some posts were still kept up by British troops, hostilities might be said to have been concluded.

356. The conclusion of the American war afforded a new proof, in addition to the result of Charles I.'s attempts upon Scotland in the preceding century, that a government, however powerful from other circumstances, cannot easily contend against a nation which has banded itself together under the influence of any high and animating sentiment. At the next opening of parliament, General Burgoyne expressed himself as now convinced that the principle of the American war was wrong. He had been brought, he said, to this conviction, by observing the uniform conduct and behaviour of the people of America. Passion, prejudice, and interest, might operate suddenly and partially; but when he saw one principle pervading the whole continent, and the Americans resolutely encountering difficulty and death for a course of years, it must be a strong vanity and presumption in our own minds, which could lead us to imagine that they were not in the right. Many of those who had formerly supported the war, began to adopt similar views; and, early in 1782, a motion, made by General Conway, for the conclusion of the war, was carried by a majority of nineteen. The necessary consequence was, that, on the 20th of March, Lord North and his colleagues resigned office, after twelve years of continued misfortune, during which the prosperity of the country had been retarded, a hundred millions added to the national debt, and three millions of people separated from the parent state.

357. As usual in such cases, a new administration was formed out of the Opposition. The Marquis of Rockingham was made prime minister, and Mr Fox one of the secretaries of state. The new ministers lost no time in taking measures for the restoration of peace. Unfortunately for their credit with the nation, Sir George Rodney gained an important victory over the French fleet off the island of Dominica, after the ministers had des- April 12, 1782. patched another officer to supersede him in the command. On this occasion thirty-seven British vessels encountered

thirty-four French, and, chiefly by the dexterous manœuvre of a breach of the enemy's line, gained one of the most complete victories recorded in naval warfare. The triumph was eminently necessary, to recover in some measure the national honour, and enable the ministers to conclude the war upon tolerable terms. In November, provisional articles for a peace with the United States of America, now acknowledged as an independent power, were signed at Paris, and the treaty was concluded in the ensuing February. When the American ambassador was afterwards, for the first time, introduced at the British levee, the king received him kindly, and said, with a manly frankness, that though he had been the last man in his dominions to desire that the independence of America should be acknowledged, he should also be the last to wish that that acknowledgment should be withdrawn. War was soon after concluded with France, Spain, and Holland, but not without some considerable concessions of colonial territory on the part of Great Britain.

358. The conclusion of this war is memorable as a period of great suffering, arising from the exhaustion of the national resources, the depression of commerce, and the accident of a bad harvest. The principles of prosperity were after all found to be so firmly rooted in the country, that, immediately after the first distresses had passed away, every department of the state resumed its wonted vigour, and, during the ensuing ten years of peace, a great advance was made in national wealth.

359. On the unexpected death of the Marquis of Rockingham, in July 1782, the king chose as his successor the Earl of Shelburne, who, though nominally a Whig, was not sufficiently inclined to the general measures of that party to be agreeable to Mr Fox and other leading members of the Cabinet. On their consequent resignation, the vacancies were filled up by the friends of Shelburne, among whom was Mr William Pitt, a younger son of the Earl of Chatham. This young statesman, to whom was assigned the office of chancellor of the exchequer, had already distinguished himself by the part he took in the popular proceedings for a reform of the House of Commons; an object which the Opposition and their supporters had for some years advocated with great

zeal, but which soon after fell in a great measure out of public notice.

Coalition Ministry.

360. THE present ministry was opposed by two parties of very different principles; namely, the adherents of the North administration, and the friends of those Whigs who had lately retired from the cabinet. These two parties, notwithstanding that they had been opposed to each other throughout all the late war, coalesced for factious or ambitious purposes, and, being triumphant over the ministry, forced themselves upon the king's counsels. Then was formed what was called the Coalition Ministry, in April 2, 1783. which Lord North and Mr Fox acted together as secretaries of state, though two years had hardly elapsed since the latter had breathed the most violent threats in parliament against his present associate. A coalition, in which political principle was supposed to be abandoned for the sake of office, could not be agreeable to the nation, while it was evidently most embarrassing to the sovereign. Mr Fox had prepared and carried through the Lower House his famous bill for the regulation of the East India Company, by which all authority was to devolve on seven directors chosen by the House of Commons—in other words, by which the immense patronage of this offshoot of the empire was to fall into the hands of the ministry. The India bill, as it was called, was generally supposed to aim at fixing the ministry in power beyond the control of both king and people, and it accordingly roused much indignation. His majesty, therefore, fully confident of support from the people, used his personal influence, in no covert way, to induce the House of Lords to reject the bill, and (December 18) sent a messenger to demand the seals of office from his over-ambitious ministers, appointing Mr Pitt to be the prime minister and chancellor of the exchequer of a new cabinet, consisting chiefly of his majesty's friends.

361. The various departments of the state were now thrown into a relative position which had never been known before, and has never recurred. The king and his ministers, backed by a decided majority of the public, were opposed by

two powerful aristocratic factions in the House of Commons, who defeated every measure that was introduced, refused the usual supplies, and voted again and again resolutions against the continuance of the present men in office, which they denounced as unconstitutional. In the course of a few weeks, however, the influence of the Opposition was sensibly reduced; the public sentiment and the power of the court began to take effect even on this intractable body; and when at length their majority had been worn down to *one*, which happened on a motion by Mr Fox, the king dissolved the parliament; a measure which, whatever it might promise to him, he did not previously think justifiable. So far were the votes of the Coalition from being based on popular support, that, in the new election, no fewer than one hundred and sixty members lost their seats. The new House of Commons was so favourable towards the king and ministry, as to enable the public service to go on without further interruption.

Legislative Measures in Ireland.

362. At the end of the reign of George II., as has been already mentioned, there arose a party in Ireland who took the name of the Patriots, and professed to seek the good of the country apart from the English interest. About the same time, or soon after, the Catholics began to recover from the terror and depression of the three past reigns. The severe statutes against Catholicism had not prevented it from extending its influence in Ireland; nor had the governing party been successful in their endeavours to repress the worldly prosperity and comfort of the professors of that faith. Like the Jews under similar circumstances, the Catholics had sought to make up, by extraordinary industry, for the want of the countenance and employment of the state; and they could now boast of a mercantile class of considerable importance. Chiefly out of this class was formed, in 1759, the first associated body of Catholics which had been known in Ireland since the Revolution.

363. A loyal address presented by this body to the Lord-lieutenant, in which their sufferings were delicately hinted

at, experienced a reception, which, though it does not now appear to have been more than civil, communicated extreme joy to a party who, for seventy years, had known nothing but severity. In 1762, a number of labourers, being thrown out of employment, began that system of nocturnal outrage for which Ireland has ever since been remarkable: they were called Whiteboys, from their wearing linen frocks over their clothes. Other servile insurrections followed, and, in 1768, under the pressure of the popular spirit, the Irish parliament, which had previously lasted throughout the king's reign, was limited by enactment to eight years. The Catholics now began to appear in courts of justice, to contend against the operation of laws to which they had formerly submitted in silence. Gradually they made a party even among the Protestants, and several of the more grievous of the penal statutes were repealed. They were allowed to lend money, to take bogs upon long leases, to enjoy landed property without any risk of its being taken from them by a Protestant heir, and to possess horses of above the value of five pounds.

364. From the first, the resistance of the American colonists inspired the Irish with a hope of shaking off the English influence. In the progress of the war, Ireland was left almost destitute of troops, and some dread began to be entertained lest the French might make a descent upon some part of the coast. In 1779, the inhabitants of Belfast formed armed associations for defence: the example was speedily followed, and in little more than a year, a volunteer corps to the amount of 50,000 men had been embodied. Encouraged by parliament, and headed by the principal men in the country, these armed citizens held meetings and passed resolutions, in which they openly avowed their determination, at the hazard of life and fortune, to achieve the independence of the native legislature, and a complete participation in the commercial rights of the British. The government, being then too feeble to resist, bowed to their demands. Poyning's law, and others which had given the English parliament a right to interfere with Ireland, were repealed; and acts were passed for the right of *habeas corpus* and the independence of the judges. In November 1783, the Volunteers held a grand

convention in Dublin, and proposed to urge the question of parliamentary reform; but the government now began to regain strength, and in a short time, by skilful measures, it prevailed upon the corps to dissolve.

Ministry of Mr Pitt—From 1784 to the Commencement of the French Revolution.

365. THOUGH the favourite minister of a sovereign decidedly opposed to all popular innovations, Mr Pitt continued to profess his former zeal for a reform in the House of Commons, but, as might be expected, was unable to bring the power of the government to bear upon the subject. In April 1785, he asked leave of the House to bring in a bill for this object, his scheme being as follows:—To transfer the right of representation from thirty-six of such boroughs as had fallen into decay, to the counties, and to such chief towns and cities as were still unrepresented; and to provide a fund for the purpose of giving, to the owners and holders of such boroughs disfranchised, a compensation for their property. He also provided, from this fund, to purchase the franchise of other boroughs, and to confer it upon such other large towns as should petition parliament for the privilege. Thus a hundred members would be given to the popular interest, and the right of election extended to a hundred thousand additional persons. Leave to bring in the bill was refused by a large majority. The desire of parliamentary reform nevertheless continued to animate a large portion of the community. In 1784, a regular society had been instituted in Scotland, for the purpose of obtaining such a measure; and in the succeeding year, forty-nine out of the sixty-six boroughs had declared in favour of it. There were also numerous associations of a similar character in England.

366. In 1786, Mr Pitt established his celebrated but fallacious scheme for redeeming the national debt, by what was called a Sinking Fund. The revenue was at this time above fifteen millions, being about one million more than was required for the public service. This excess he proposed

to lay aside annually, to lie at compound interest; by which means he calculated that each million would be quadrupled at the end of twenty-eight years, and thus go a great way towards the object he had in view. To this scheme Mr Fox added the infinitely more absurd amendment, that, when the government required to borrow more money, one million of every six so obtained should be laid aside for the same purpose. The scheme was so well received as to increase the popularity of the minister, and it was not till 1813 that its fallaciousness was proved.

367. In the year 1786 commenced the parliamentary proceedings against Mr Warren Hastings, for alleged cruelty and robbery exercised upon the natives of India during his governorship of that dependency of Great Britain. These proceedings were urged by Mr Burke and other members of the Whig party, and excited so much public indignation against Mr Hastings, that the ministry was obliged, though unwillingly, to lend their countenance to his trial, which took place before parliament in the most solemn manner, and occupied one hundred and forty-nine days, extending over a space of several years. The result was the acquittal of Mr Hastings.

368. The king and queen had, in the mean time, become the parents of a numerous family of sons and daughters. The eldest son, George, Prince of Wales, had now for several years been of age, and exempted from the control of his father. He had no sooner been set up in an establishment of his own, than he plunged into a career of prodigality, forming the most striking contrast with the chastened simplicity and decorum of the paternal abode. He also attached himself to the party of the Opposition, though rather apparently from the principle of contradiction to his father, than a sincere approbation of their political objects. The result was the complete alienation of the Prince of Wales from the affections of the king.

369. In November 1788, an aberration of intellect, resulting from an illness of some duration, was observed in the king, and it became necessary to provide some species of substitute for the exercise of the royal functions. To have invested the Prince of Wales with the regency

appeared the most obvious course; but this would have thrown out the ministry, as it was to be supposed that his royal highness would call the chiefs of his own party to his counsels. Mr Fox contended that the hereditary nature of the monarchy pointed out an unconditional right in the prince to assume the supreme power under such circumstances; but Mr Pitt asserted the right of parliament to give or withhold such an office, and proposed to assign certain limits to the authority of the intended regent, which would have placed the existing ministry beyond his reach. The Irish parliament voted the unconditional regency to the prince; but that of Great Britain was about to adopt the modified plan proposed by Mr Pitt, when the **March 1789.** king suddenly recovered, and put an end to the difficulty. The debates on the regency question shew in a very strong light how statesmen will sometimes abandon their most favourite and strongest principles, on the call of their own immediate interests.

Miscellaneous Circumstances from 1760 to 1790.

370. At the beginning of the reign of George III., both the commerce and manufactures of the country might be considered as in a highly flourishing condition. Scotland was not now, as formerly, exempt from the general prosperity. In that country, since the year 1746, great improvements of various kinds had taken place: the linen manufacture had been much advanced; a trade with the colonies had sprung up; agriculture was undergoing great changes for the better; the Highlands were now peaceful, and throughout the whole country were seen conspicuous symptoms of increasing wealth, and its natural consequence, refinement of manners.

371. During the first ten years of the reign of George III., some discoveries and inventions were made, by which the prosperity of the whole empire received a new impulse. By the improvements effected in the steam-engine by Mr James Watt, a superior mechanic power was obtained for the driving of machinery and other purposes. Mr James

Hargreaves of Blackburn invented the *spinning-jenny*, a contrivance for abridging the use of hand-labour in the cotton manufacture. Upon this an improvement was afterwards made by Mr Richard Arkwright, who invented what was called the *spinning-frame*, by which a vast number of threads of the utmost fineness were spun with very little aid from hand-labour. A third invention, called the *mule*, by Mr Samuel Crompton of Bolton, came into use some years later; and, finally, the *power-loom* was invented, for superseding hand-labour in weaving. By these means, the cotton manufacture was brought to a pitch of prosperity in Britain, such as no particular branch of manufacture had ever experienced before in any country. The immense wealth produced by it is allowed to have been what chiefly enabled the nation to sustain the great contest in which it was afterwards involved with France. Considering these great results, the original condition of the principal persons concerned in improving the manufacture is remarkable. Mr Watt, who gave it a mechanic force in the steam-engine, was an artisan in his early days; Mr Hargreaves was a carpenter; Mr Arkwright a hair-dresser; and Mr Crompton a weaver. Mr Arkwright, at his death, left nearly a million sterling, realised by the profits of his invention.

372. The early part of the reign of George III. was distinguished by the discoveries of Captain Cook in the Pacific Ocean, by the formation of many canals for internal navigation, and by the foundation of the Royal Academy for the Promotion of the Fine Arts. This period derives lustre from the admirable paintings of Barry, Blake, Hoppner, and Reynolds. Astronomy was cultivated by Dr William Herschel, who, in 1781 discovered the planet Uranus. Chemistry was improved by Dr Joseph Black and Mr Cavendish. The science of medicine was advanced by Dr Cullen of Edinburgh; and natural history by Sir Joseph Banks. In literature, the chief place is due to Dr Samuel Johnson, who had flourished also in the preceding reign. Oliver Goldsmith, Mark Akenside, and William Cowper, were the most eminent poets. History was written in a masterly manner by William Robertson and David Hume; Henry Home, David Hume, and Adam Smith, figure as

philosophical writers; Sir William Blackstone wrote on English law; and amongst divines, we find the eminent names of Bishops Warburton, Jortin, and Hurd.

French Revolution.

373. THE country had for several years experienced the utmost prosperity and peace, when it was roused by a series of events which took place in France. The proceedings of the French nation for redressing the political grievances under which they had long laboured, commenced in 1789, and were at first very generally applauded in Britain, as likely to raise that nation to a rational degree of freedom. Ere long, the violence shewn at the destruction of the Bastile, the abolition of hereditary privileges, the open disrespect for religion, and other symptoms of an extravagant spirit, manifested by the French, produced a considerable change in the sentiments of the British people. The proceedings of the French were still justified by the principal leaders of Opposition in parliament, and by a large class of the community; but they inspired the government, and the propertied and privileged classes generally, with great alarm and distrust.

374. Under the impulse communicated from France, a number of associations were formed throughout the country, for the purpose of urging that reform in the House of Commons which had so long been called for by the Opposition; the society in London being headed by Mr (afterwards Earl) Grey, and Mr (afterwards Lord) Erskine. There also appeared a profusion of pamphlets in favour of reform. The public mind was greatly agitated by the various events and discussions which were constantly taking place; all the more ardent, and speculative, and benevolent minds, entering heartily into the views of the French, while the more cautious, and the more wealthy, expressed their fears for the result. A considerable number of those accustomed to oppose government took this opportunity to join its ranks, the chief of whom was Mr Burke, who, in November 1790, published his celebrated pamphlet on the French Revolution, in which he employed unexampled eloquence, and a vast range of historical illustration,

to shew that it was founded on principles adverse to real liberty and to public security.

375. The improvement of the public institutions of France would have probably taken place without any material consequences, if not deranged by external events. That national weakness which had been the main cause of the Revolution, prompted two ambitious powers—Austria and Prussia—to form a scheme (summer 1791) for overrunning France, and restoring the king to full authority; it was also suspected that they contemplated appropriating to themselves some of the provinces of France. The knowledge of these designs produced the utmost indignation among the French, and was the first cause of the more violent proceedings at Paris. In reply to a question from France respecting the troops assembling on the frontier, Francis II. of Austria made no scruple to avow an intention, with his ally, to interfere in the settlement of the French government; the consequence was a proclamation, by France, of war against Austria, Prussia, and Sardinia. In the summer of 1792, the combined powers placed an army under the charge of the Duke of Brunswick—reinforced by large bodies of the fugitive noblesse of France—for the purpose of invading that country, which they had no doubt they should speedily find at their mercy. A manifesto, issued by the duke at Coblenz, called upon all the French authorities to submit to their king, under the pain of military execution, and threatened to give up the city of Paris to spoliation, if the least injury should be offered to the royal family, who were invited to come under the protection of the allied army. The result was an universal rising of the military spirit of the French against the invader, who, before the end of the year, was completely defeated, and driven from the country, by troops of raw but enthusiastic recruits; while the king, having, by an attempted flight, and other circumstances, given reason for suspicion that he was disposed to regain his former power by means of foreign assistance, was deposed (August 10, 1792), and thrown with his family into ignominious confinement.

War Declared against France, 1793.

376. THE deposition of the King of France, and the subsequent establishment of a republic, conveyed alarm wherever hereditary institutions were known. At a time when it was the interest of the French Convention to have taken every proper means of soothing this unfavourable feeling, they gave it additional excitement by passing a decree (November 1792), intended as a retaliation for the conduct of Austria and Prussia, proffering aid to any people who might be inclined to reform their institutions; and still further (January 21, 1793), by bringing their deposed king to the block. Previously to the last incident, they had overrun the Netherlands, and opened the navigation of the Scheldt, which Great Britain was obliged by treaty to keep shut for the advantage of Holland. The decree, and the opening of this river for general commerce, afforded to the British government an excuse for entering into a war with France, while the real motives were, in a great measure, similar to those which animated Austria and Prussia—a desire of restoring monarchy in France, and preventing the contagion of French doctrines in Britain. The French Convention, who made peace one of their first principles, **A.D. 1793.** offered to explain away the decree, and to give up the question of the Scheldt; but the ministry paid no attention to the proposal. It was confidently expected by the king, his ministers, and the great body of respectable persons who rallied round the throne and the aristocracy on this occasion, that the French Republic had not strength to stand a single campaign against Britain and the other combined powers.

377. A comparatively small body of the people were zealously opposed to a war with France, and the views of this party continued to be advocated in parliament by Messrs Fox and Sheridan, but without producing any impression. At such a crisis, to speak of political reforms in England seemed the height of imprudence, as tending to encourage the French. All, therefore, who continued to make open demonstrations for that cause, were now branded as enemies to religion and civil order. In Scotland, Mr Thomas Muir,

a barrister, and Mr Palmer, a Unitarian clergyman, were tried for sedition, and sentenced to various terms of banishment. Citizens named Skirving, Gerald, and Margarot, were treated in like manner by the Scottish criminal judges, though their offences, in themselves trivial, could only be said to derive the character ascribed to them from the temporary and accidental circumstances of the nation. An attempt to inflict similar punishments upon the English reformers, was defeated by the acquittal of a shoemaker named Hardy; but the party was nevertheless subjected, with the apparent concurrence of a large and influential portion of the people, to many minor severities.

Unexpected Successes of the French.

378. AFTER alliances had been formed with the other powers hostile to France, the British ministers despatched an army to the Netherlands, under the command of the king's second son, the Duke of York, to co-operate in reducing the fortresses in possession of the French, while the town of Toulon, being inclined to remain under the authority of the royal family, put itself into the hands of a British naval commander. At first, the French seemed to fail somewhat in their defences; but on a more ardently republican party acceding to power under the direction of the famous Robespierre, the national energies were much increased, and the Duke of Brunswick experienced a series of disgraceful reverses. The Prussian government, having adopted new views of the condition of France, now began to withdraw their troops, on the pretext of being unable to pay them; and though Britain gave nearly a million and a quarter sterling to induce this power to remain nine months longer upon the field, its co-operation was of no further service, and was soon altogether lost. On the 1st of June 1794, the French Brest fleet sustained a severe defeat from Lord Howe, with the loss of six ships; but the republican troops not only drove the combined armies out of the Netherlands, but, taking advantage of an unusually hard frost, invaded Holland by the ice which covered the Rhine, and reduced that country to a republic under their own control. The successes of the

British were limited to the above naval victory, the temporary possession of Corsica and Toulon, the capture of several of the French colonies in the West Indies, and the spoliation of a great quantity of the commercial shipping of France ; against which were to be reckoned the expulsion of an army from the Netherlands, the loss of ten thousand men, and sixty thousand stand of arms, in an unsuccessful descent upon the west coast of France, some considerable losses of shipping, and an increase of annual expenditure from about fourteen to nearly forty millions. In the course of the year 1795, the lower portions of the community appeared violently discontented with the progress of the war, and began to renew their demands for reform in the state. As the king was passing, October 29, to open the session of parliament, a stone was thrown into his coach, and the interference of the horse guards was required to protect his person from an infuriated mob. The ministers consequently obtained acts for more effectually repressing sedition, and for the dispersion of political meetings. They were at the same time compelled to make a show of yielding to the popular clamours for peace ; and commenced a negotiation with the French Directory, which was broken off by the refusal of France to restore Belgium to Austria. In the ensuing year, so far from any advance being made towards the subjugation of France, the northern states of Italy were overrun by its armies, and formed into what was called the Cisalpine Republic. The celebrated Napoleon Bonaparte made his first conspicuous appearance as the leader of this expedition, which terminated in Austria submitting to a humiliating peace. At the close of 1796, a French fleet sailed for Ireland, with the design of revolutionising that country, and detaching it from Britain ; but its object was defeated by stress of weather. At this crisis, a new attempt was made to negotiate with the French Republic ; but as the events of the year had been decidedly favourable to France, a renewed demand of the British for the surrender of Belgium was looked upon as a proof that they were not sincere in their proposals, and their agent was insultingly ordered to leave the French territory. To add to the distresses of Britain, while Austria was withdrawn from the number of her allies, Spain, by a declaration of war in

1797, increased in no inconsiderable degree the immense force with which she had to contend.

Invasion Threatened—Derangement of Public Credit.

379. For some time an invasion of Britain had been threatened by France ; and, sacred as the land had been for centuries from the touch of a foreign enemy, the successes of the republicans had hitherto so greatly exceeded all previous calculation, that the execution of their design did not appear improbable. Just as the interference of the neighbouring powers had, in 1792, roused the energies of the French, so did this proposed invasion stimulate the spirit of the British people. The clamours of reformers, and of those who were friendly to France, were now drowned in an almost universal zeal for the defence of the country ; and not only were volunteer corps everywhere formed, but the desire of prosecuting the war became nearly the ruling sentiment of the nation. The ministers, perceiving the advantage which was to be derived from the tendency of the national spirit, appeared seriously to dread an invasion, and thus produced an unexpected and very distressing result. The credit of the Bank of England was shaken ; a *run* was made upon it for gold in exchange for its notes, which it could not meet. On the 25th of February 1797, therefore, the bank was obliged, with the sanction of the Privy Council, to suspend cash payments ; that is, to refuse giving coin on demand for the paper money which had been issued. This step led to a great depreciation in the value of Bank of England notes, and a very serious derangement of the currency ensued for a number of years.

Mutinies of the Seamen—Naval Victories of St Vincent and Camperdown.

380. In April (1797), a new alarm arose from the proceedings of the seamen on board the Channel fleet, who mutinied for an advance of pay, and the redress of some alleged grievances. A convention of delegates from the

various ships met in Lord Howe's cabin, and drew up petitions to the House of Commons and the Board of Admiralty. Upon these being yielded to, order was restored ; but the seamen on board the fleet at the Nore soon after broke out in a much more alarming revolt ; and, on the refusal of their demands, moored their vessels across the Thames, threatening to cut off all communication between London and the open sea. The reduction of this mutiny appeared at one time as if it could only be effected by much bloodshed ; but by the firmness of the government, and some skilful dealings with the seamen, a loyal party was formed, by whom the more turbulent men were secured, and the vessels restored to their officers. The ringleaders, the chief of whom was a young man named Richard Parker, were tried and executed.

381. The same year was remarkable for several victories gained by the British fleets. A Spanish fleet of twenty-seven ships was attacked by fifteen vessels under Admiral Jervis (February 14), off Cape St Vincent, and completely beaten, with the loss of four large vessels. A fleet under Admiral Harvey, with a military force under Sir Ralph Abercromby, captured the island of Trinidad, a Spanish colony. In October, a Dutch fleet, under Admiral Van Winter, was attacked off the village of Camperdown, upon their own coast, by Admiral Duncan, who, after a desperate battle, captured nine of the enemy's vessels. These naval successes compensated in some measure for the many land-victories of the French, and served to sustain the spirit of the British nation under this unfortunate contest.

Expedition to Egypt—New Coalition against France.

382. In 1798, the French overran and added to their dominions the ancient republic of Switzerland, which gave them a frontier contiguous to Austria, and enabled them eventually to act with increased readiness and force upon that country. In this year, the directors of the French republic, beginning to be afraid of the ambition of their general, Bonaparte, sent him at the head of an expedition

to reduce and colonise Egypt, intending from that country to act against the British empire in the East Indies. The expedition was successful in its first object; but the fleet which had conveyed it was attacked in Aboukir Bay, by Admiral Nelson (August 1), and almost totally destroyed or captured. While so much of the strength of the French army was thus secluded in a distant country, the eastern powers of Europe thought they might safely recommence war with the republic. Austria, Naples, and Russia, formed a confederacy for this purpose; and Britain, to supply the necessary funds, submitted to the grievance of an income-tax, amounting in general to ten per cent., in addition to all her previous burdens.

383. This new confederacy was so successful in 1799, as to redeem the greater part of Italy. In the campaign which produced this result, the Russian army, under the famous Suwaroff, acted the most prominent part; but at the close, attempting to expel the French from Switzerland, this large force was nearly cut to pieces in one of the defiles of that mountainous country: In August of the same year, Great Britain made a corresponding attempt to expel the French from Holland. Thirty-five thousand men, under the Duke of York, formed the military part of the expedition. The fleet was successful at the first in taking the Dutch ships; but the army, having landed under stress of weather at an unfavourable place for their operations, was obliged, after an abortive series of skirmishes, to make an agreement with the French, purchasing permission to go back to their country by the surrender of 8000 prisoners from England.

Bonaparte Elected First Consul—His Successes.

384. THE reverses which France experienced in 1799 were generally attributed to the weakness of the Directory—a council of five, to which the executive had been intrusted. Bonaparte suddenly returned from his army in Egypt, and, by a skilful management of his popularity, overturned the Directory, and caused himself to be appointed the sole depositary of the executive power of the state, under the

denomination of First Consul. He immediately wrote a letter to King George, making overtures of peace, but was answered, by the British secretary, that no dependence could be placed by Great Britain on any treaty with France, unless her government were again consolidated under the Bourbons. Bonaparte, having much reason to wish for peace, made a reply to this note, vindicating France from the charge brought against her, of having commenced a system of aggression inconsistent with the interests of other states, and asserting her right to choose her own government—a point, he said, that could not decently be contested by the minister of a crown which was held by no other tenure. But the British government was at this time too much elated by the expulsion of the French army from Italy, and the late changes in the executive, which, in their estimation, betokened weakness, to be immediately anxious for peace.

385. The events of 1800 were of a very different nature from what had been calculated upon in England. Sir Sidney Smith, who commanded the British forces in Syria, had made a treaty with the French army after it had been left by Bonaparte, whereby it was agreed that the French should abandon Egypt, and retire unmolested to their own country. The British government, in its present temper, refused to ratify this arrangement; the consequence was a continuance of hostilities. The French overthrew a large Turkish army at Grand Cairo, and made themselves more effectually than ever the masters of the country, so that Britain was obliged to send an army next year, under Sir Ralph Abercromby, to accomplish, at an immense expense and a great waste of human life, what the French had formerly agreed to do. In Europe the presence of Bonaparte produced equally disastrous results. By one of his most dexterous movements, he eluded the Austrians, led an army over the Alps by the Great St Bernard into the Milanese, and, having gained a decisive victory at Marengo (June 14), at once restored the greater part of Italy to French domination. Contemporaneously with Napoleon's movements, Moreau led another army directly into Germany, overthrew the Austrians in several battles,

and advanced to within seventeen leagues of Vienna. These reverses obliged Austria next year to make a peace, by which France became mistress of all Europe west of the Rhine and south of the Adige.

Change of Ministry, and Peace of Amiens, 1801-2.

386. At the commencement of 1801, Britain had not only to lament this unexpected turn of fortune, but to reckon among her enemies the whole of the northern states of Europe, which had found it necessary to place themselves on a friendly footing with Bonaparte, and, though they did not declare war against Britain, yet acted in such a manner as to render hostilities unavoidable. Nelson sailed in March, with a large fleet, for Copenhagen, and proved so successful against the Danish Fleet, as to reduce that country to a state of neutrality. The death of the Russian Emperor Paul, which took place at the same time, and the accession of Alexander, who was friendly to Britain, completely broke up the northern confederacy. Yet the great achievements of France on the continent, joined to the distresses of a famine which at this time bore hard on the British people, produced a desire for that peace which, a year before, might have been gained upon better terms. With a view, apparently, to save the honour of Mr Pitt and his friends, a new ministry was appointed under Mr Addington, by whom a peace was at length, in the end of the year, concluded with France, which **A.D. 1802.** was left in the state of aggrandisement which has just been described.

387. The war of the French Revolution placed Great Britain in possession of a considerable number of islands and colonies in the East and West Indies, and elsewhere; and while two war-ships was the whole amount of her losses at sea, she had taken or destroyed 80 sail of the line, 181 frigates, and 224 smaller ships belonging to the enemy, together with 743 privateers, 15 Dutch, and 76 Spanish ships. The triumphs of the British fleets were indeed numerous and splendid, and had the effect of keeping

the national commerce almost inviolate during the whole of the war, while that of France was nearly destroyed. There was, however, hardly the most trifling instance of success by land; and the expenses of the contest had been enormous. Previously to 1793, the supplies usually voted by the House of Commons were £14,000,000; but those for 1801 were £42,197,000, being double the amount of the whole land-rent of the country.

Ireland—Results of the French Revolution.

388. **ALTHOUGH** the government had been able, in 1783, to procure a dissolution of the volunteer corps, the bulk of the Irish people continued to express the most anxious desire for such a reform in their parliament as might render it a more just representation of the popular voice. In October 1784, a national congress, composed of delegates from most of the counties and large towns, met in Dublin, and petitioned for parliamentary reform. Nor was this a movement solely of the discontented Catholics, but it embraced a vast number of Protestants, who were displeased that their legislature should be merely an organ in the hands of a small dominant party, accustomed to be subservient to the English ministry. When Mr Pitt came into power, the part which he had taken in advocating parliamentary reform, inspired hopes in the Irish that they should speedily be successful in their object; but they soon learned that, from the opposition of the king and his colleagues, the sentiments of Mr Pitt with regard to this measure were of no avail. An attempt which he made to console them for the want of reform, by extending their commercial privileges, was also frustrated, chiefly by the jealousy of the British merchants. A strong feeling of discontent, not only with the government, but with the British connection, was thus engendered in Ireland.

389. At the commencement of the revolutionary proceedings in France, the wildest hopes of the Irish were again excited. Towards the close of the year 1791, they formed an association, under the title of the United Irishmen, comprehending persons of all religions, and designed to obtain 'a

complete reform of the legislature, founded on the principles of civil, political, and religious liberty.' The government from the first suspected this association of meditating an overturn of the state, and took strong measures for keeping it in check. A convention formed by it met in Dublin, December 3, 1792, and petitioned for reform. The Catholics took this opportunity to abjure certain tenets which were commonly attributed to them; such as, that excommunicated princes might be deposed or murdered by their subjects; that faith might be broken with heretics; that the Pope possessed power over the British dominions; and that any human authority could forgive sins without sincere repentance. They also disavowed all desire to reclaim lands forfeited by their ancestors, or to overthrow the existing Protestant church. The great force mustered in Ireland against the government, at a time when it was about to commence a war against similar principles in France, gave it much uneasiness, and some concessions to the popular spirit were thought indispensable. The legislature of Ireland, therefore, gave permission to Catholics to intermarry with Protestants, to practise at the bar, and to educate their own children. At the same time, acts were passed for putting down the meetings and petitions of the United Irishmen; and their secretary, Archibald Hamilton Rowan, was tried and sentenced to a fine and two years' imprisonment, for issuing a seditious manifesto.

390. It was soon after ascertained that the United Irishmen had carried on a treasonable correspondence with the agents of the French government, and if Rowan had not escaped from prison, he would, in all probability, have been punished capitally. Two other leaders in the association, James Napper Tandy and Theobald Wolfe Tone, at the same time fled from the country. It was now considered certain that a plan had been formed for detaching Ireland from Britain, and uniting it to the French Republic. The government, fully awake to the danger (1794), despatched Earl Fitzwilliam, a liberal nobleman, to act as lord-lieutenant, with permission to take whatever measures he might deem necessary for restoring the loyalty and tranquillity of the country. He began by displacing from power all the officers who were opposed to the system of conciliation which he

meant to pursue. Leave was also given in parliament to bring in a bill for removing the Catholic disqualifications. But before any measure had been completed, the Honourable John Beresford, a leader of the party which had so long held the chief rule in Ireland, persuaded the government of the danger that would result from the plan of Earl Fitzwilliam, and he was suddenly superseded. The parliament, which had almost unanimously sanctioned the Catholic Relief Bill while it was understood to be desired by the government, now threw it out. The Catholics obtained no advantages on this occasion, except permission to send their children to the Dublin University, and the establishment of a college at Maynooth for the education of their priests, against whom the French seminaries were now closed.

Ireland—Rebellion of 1798.

391. THE patriotic party in Ireland seem to have now despaired of accomplishing the desired melioration of their institutions, so long as the British connection should subsist. They therefore formed themselves into secret societies, with the intention of throwing the country under the protection of the French, who, it will be recollected, had proffered their friendship to any nation which might be discontented with its rulers. These societies were organised in the most ingenious manner, under military as well as civil regulations, and are said to have involved nearly half a million of men. A supreme directory of five persons, personally known only to those next in command, and who, nevertheless, exercised the most absolute rule over the whole body, entered into a treaty with the Directory of the French Republic, for the landing of a considerable auxiliary army, to be under the pay and command of the Irish. So determined were the members of this vast union to obtain their object, that its proceedings were conducted for about two years without being betrayed to the government. During this time, being resolved to wait patiently for the aid of France, and the complete preparation of their own strength, they submitted quietly to the severest proceedings of the government. In the course of the year

1796, the Habeas Corpus Act was suspended; magistrates were empowered, at their own discretion, to send suspected persons to the navy; and a yeomanry corps, formed out of those Protestants who took the name of the Orange party, treated the Catholics with great severity. In the summer of 1797, military law was proclaimed, and life and liberty were everywhere at the mercy of a dissolute soldiery. Yet the unions everywhere remained quiet, though able, at the command of their leaders, to have risen in almost overwhelming force against the government. The connection of Great Britain with Ireland is allowed to have been maintained on this occasion with the greatest difficulty.

392. In December 1796, a portion of the French fleet, destined for the service of the Irish Union, anchored in Bantry Bay. Not being joined by the remainder, and finding the country disposed to remain quiet, those in command judged it prudent to return almost immediately to Brest. In the ensuing year, the naval resources of France were much reduced by the victory of Duncan over the Dutch fleet at Camperdown. With the design of urging their preparations, Arthur O'Connor, a member of the Irish Directory, proceeded to France, but was arrested in passing through England. Losing all hope of French assistance, the conspirators resolved to act without it; but their designs were betrayed by one Reynolds; and three other members of the Directory, Emmett, Macnevin, and Bond, were seized. Notwithstanding the precautionary measures which the government was thus enabled to take, the Union persisted in the design of rising on a fixed day. Lord Edward Fitzgerald, another of its leaders, was then arrested, and, being wounded in a scuffle with his captors, soon after died in prison. On the 21st of May 1798, Lord Castlereagh, secretary to the Lord-lieutenant, disclosed the whole plan of insurrection, which had been fixed to commence on the 23d.

393. Though thus thwarted in their designs, and deprived of their best leaders, the conspirators appeared in arms in various parts of the country. Parties attacked Naas and Carlow, but were repulsed with loss. A large party, under a priest named Murphy, appeared in the county of Wexford, and took the city of that name. Slight insurrections about

the same time broke out in the northern counties of Antrim and Down, but were easily suppressed. In Wexford alone did the insurgents appear in formidable strength; and on the 21st of June, their whole force was collected upon Vinegar Hill, near Enniscorthy, where an army of 13,000 men, with a proportionate train of artillery, was brought against them by General Lake. They were completely overthrown and dispersed. From this time the rebellion languished, and in July it had so far ceased to be formidable, that an act of amnesty was passed in favour of all who had been engaged in it, except the leaders.

394. On the 22d of August, when the rebellion had been completely extinguished, nine hundred French, under General Humbert, were landed at Killala, in the opposite extremity of the country from that in which the insurgents had shewn the greatest strength. Though too late to be of any decisive effect, they gave some trouble to the government. A much larger body of British troops, under General Lake, met them at Castlebar, but retreated in a panic. They then advanced to the centre of the country, while the Lord-Lieutenant confessed the formidable reputation which their countrymen had acquired, by concentrating an immensely disproportioned force against them. On the 8th of September, they were met at Carrick-on-Shannon by this large army, to which they yielded themselves prisoners of war.

Ireland—Union with Great Britain.

395. IN the course of the two ensuing years, the British ministers exerted themselves to bring about an incorporating union of Ireland with Great Britain; a measure to which the Irish people were almost universally opposed, but which, by the use of bribes and government patronage, liberally employed amongst the members of the Irish legislature, was at length effected. From the 1st of January 1801, the kingdom of Ireland formed an essential part of the empire, on which was now conferred the name of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. The act of union secured to the Irish most of the commercial privileges which they had

so long sought. Upon a comparison of the aggregate exports and imports of the two countries, Ireland was to raise two parts of revenue for every fifteen raised by Great Britain, during the first twenty years of the union, after which new regulations were to be made by parliament. One hundred commoners were to be sent by Ireland to the British (now called the Imperial) parliament; namely, two for each county, two for each of the cities of Dublin and Cork, one for the university, and one for each of the thirty-one most considerable towns. Four lords-spiritual, by rotation of sessions, and twenty-eight lords-temporal, elected for life by the Peers of Ireland, were to sit in the House of Lords.

396. The Union, though upon the whole effected in a spirit of fairness towards Ireland, increased the discontent of the people, which broke out in 1803 in a new insurrection. Under Robert Emmett and Thomas Russell, a conspiracy was formed for seizing the seat of the vice-government, and for this purpose a great multitude of peasantry from the county of Kildare assembled (July 23) in Dublin. Disappointed in their attempt upon the castle, they could only raise a tumult in the streets, in the course of which Lord Kilwarden, a judge, and his nephew, Mr Wolfe, were dragged from a carriage and killed. The mob was dispersed by soldiery, and Emmett and Russell, being seized, were tried and executed.

War Renewed with France, 1803—Subsequent Events.

397. It was only one of the results of the war against French independence, that France was led by the course of events to place herself under the control of her chief military genius, Napoleon Bonaparte; a man singularly qualified for concentrating and directing the energies of a country in the existing condition of France, but animated more by personal ambition than by any extended views of the good of his species. It was soon manifest that Bonaparte did not relish peace. By taking undue advantage of several points left loose in the treaty, he provoked great Britain to retaliate by retaining possession of Malta; and the war was accordingly recommenced in May 1803. Britain immediately employed

her superior naval force to seize the French West India colonies; while France took possession of Hanover, and excluded British commerce from Hamburg. Bonaparte collected an immense flotilla at Boulogne, for the avowed purpose of invading England; but so vigorous were the preparations made by the whole British population, and so formidable the fleet under Lord Nelson, that he never found it possible to put his design in execution. In the year 1804, he was elevated to the condition of Emperor of the French; and France once more exhibited the formalities of a court, though not of the kind which the European sovereigns wished to see established. In April of the same year, the Addington administration was exchanged for one constructed by Mr Pitt, and of which he formed the chief.

398. In 1805, under the fostering influence of Great Britain, a new coalition of European powers, consisting of Russia, Sweden, Austria, and Naples, was formed against Napoleon. He, on the other hand, had drawn Spain upon his side, and was making great exertions for contesting with Britain the empire of the sea. A fleet of thirty-three sail, partly French and partly Spanish, met a British fleet of twenty-seven, under Nelson, off Cape Trafalgar, October 21, 1805, and was completely beaten, though at the expense of the life of the British commander. Britain thus fixed permanently her dominion over the seas and coasts of the civilised world. At this time, however, Napoleon was asserting with equal success his supremacy over continental Europe. By a sudden, rapid, and unexpected movement, he conducted an army into Germany, where the Austrians were already making aggressions upon neutral territory. On the 17th October, he took the fortress of Ulm, with its artillery, magazines, and garrison of 30,000 men; a month after, he entered Vienna without resistance. He then pursued the royal family, and the allied armies of Russia and Austria, into Moravia; and, on the 2d of December, he gained the decisive victory of Austerlitz, which put an end to the coalition, and rendered him the dictator of the continent.

399. This series of events caused much gloom in the British counsels, and, with several other painful circumstances,

among which was the impeachment of his colleague Lord Melville, for malpractices in the Admiralty, proved a death-blow to Mr Pitt, who expired on the 23d of January 1806, completely worn out with state business, at the early age of forty-seven, half of which time he had spent in the public service. Mr Pitt is universally allowed the praise of high talent and patriotism. But his policy has been a subject of dispute between the two great parties into which British society is divided. By the Tories it is firmly believed, that his entering into the war against the French republic was the means of saving the country from anarchy and ruin; by the Whigs, or Liberals, that this step only tended to postpone the settlement of the affairs of France, and loaded Britain with an enormous debt. Of the absence of all selfish views in Mr Pitt there can be no doubt; for, so far from accumulating a fortune out of the public funds, he left some debts, which parliament gratefully paid.

400. Mr Pitt's ministry was succeeded by one composed of Lord Grenville, Mr Fox, and their friends; it was comprehensively called Whig, although Lord Grenville was in every respect a Tory, except in his advocacy of the claims of the Catholics for emancipation. In the course of 1806, the new cabinet made a strenuous but not undignified attempt to obtain a peace from France, which now threatened to bring the whole world to its feet. But the Grenville administration encountered serious difficulties from the king, who never could be induced to look with the least favour on the Catholic claims, or those who advocated them. Exhausted by his useless labours, Mr Fox died September 13, 1806. Few names are more endeared to the British people than his; for, though the leader of the Whigs, he never excited any rancour in his opponents. He was remarkable for his frankness and simplicity; and, if his private life was not free from errors, they rather served to prevent his high endowments from removing him above the sphere of human sympathy, than to render him odious. His abilities as a parliamentary orator and statesman were of the first order, and he was invariably the consistent and sincere friend of popular rights. It was not the least lamentable consequence of the war, that it caused

the premature decease of two such men as Mr Pitt and Mr Fox.

401. A new coalition, excluding Austria, but involving Prussia, had been subsidised by Britain, and was now preparing to act. With his usual decision, Napoleon led what he called his 'Grand Army' by forced marches into Prussia; gained, on the 14th of October, the battles of Jena and Auerstadt, which at once deprived that country of her army, her capital, and her fortresses; and then proclaimed the famous 'Berlin Decrees,' by which he declared Great Britain in a state of blockade, and shut the ports of Europe against her merchandise. The King of Prussia, Frederick William III., took refuge with his court in Russia, which now was the only continental power of any importance that remained unsubdued by France.

402. Towards that country Napoleon soon bent his steps, taking, as he went, assistance from Poland, which he promised to restore to independence. After a series of skirmishes and battles of lesser importance, he met the Russian army in great strength (June 14, 1807), at Friedland, and gave it a total overthrow. He might now have easily reduced the whole country, as he had done Austria and Prussia; but he contented himself with forming a treaty (called the Treaty of Tilsit, from the place where it was entered into), by which Russia agreed to become an ally of France, and entered into his views for the embarrassment of Britain by the exclusion of her commerce from the continental ports. France had thus, in the course of a few years, disarmed the whole of Europe, excepting Great Britain; an amount of military triumph for which there was no precedent in ancient or modern history.

403. The Grenville administration was displaced in spring 1807, in consequence of the difference between its members and the king on the subject of the Catholic claims, which had long been urged by the Whig party, with little support from the people. The next ministry was headed by the Duke of Portland, and included Lords Hawkesbury and Castlereagh (afterwards Earl of Liverpool and Marquis of Londonderry), and Mr Canning, as secretaries; Mr Spencer Perceval, recently a solicitor, being

chancellor of the exchequer. After being accustomed to the services of such men as Pitt and Fox, the people regarded this cabinet as one possessing comparatively little ability. One of its first acts was the despatch of a naval armament to Copenhagen, to seize and bring away the Danish shipping, which was expected to be immediately employed in subserviency to the designs of France, and for the injury of Britain. The end of the expedition was easily gained; but it was the means of lowering the honour of Britain in the eyes of foreign states.

First Peninsular Campaign—Subsequent Events.

404. THE retaliation of France, for the interferences of other powers with its revolution, even supposing such retaliation justifiable, was now more than completed. Further measures could only appear as dictated by a desire of aggrandisement. But France was now given up to the direction of a military genius, who had other ends to serve than the defence of the country against foreign aggression or interference. The amazing successes of Napoleon had inspired him with the idea of universal empire; and so great was the influence he had acquired over the French, and so high their military spirit, that the attainment of his object seemed by no means impossible. There was a difference, however, between the opposition which he met with before this period, and that which he subsequently encountered. In the earlier periods of the war, the military operations of the European powers were chiefly dictated by views concerning the interests of governments, and in which the people at large felt little sympathy. Henceforth a more patriotic spirit rose everywhere against Napoleon: he was looked upon in England and elsewhere as the common enemy of humanity and of freedom; and every exertion made for the humiliation of France was animated by a sentiment of desperation, in which the governors and governed alike participated.

405. The Spanish peninsula was the first part of the prostrated continent where the people could be said to have taken

a decidedly hostile part against Napoleon. He had there gone so far as to dethrone the reigning family, and give the crown to his elder brother Joseph. A sense of wrong and insult, mingled with religious fanaticism, raised the Spanish people in revolt against the French troops ; and though their conduct was everywhere barbarous in the extreme, it was hailed in Britain as capable of being turned to account. In terms of a treaty entered into with a provisional government in Spain, a small army was landed, August 8, 1808, in Portugal, which had been recently taken possession of by the French. Sir Arthur Wellesley, who afterwards became so famous as Duke of Wellington, was the leader of this force. In an engagement at Vimeira, on the 21st, he repulsed the French, under Junot, who soon after agreed, by what was called the Convention of Cintra, to evacuate the country. Sir Arthur being recalled, the British army was led into Spain under the command of Sir John Moore ; but this officer found the reinforcements poured in by Napoleon too great to be withstood, and accordingly, in the end of December, he commenced a disastrous, though well-conducted retreat towards the port of Corunna, whither he was closely pursued by Marshal Soult. The British army suffered, on this occasion, the severest hardships and losses, but did not experience a check in battle, or lose a single standard. In a battle which took place at Corunna, January 16, 1809, for the purpose of protecting the embarkation of the troops, Sir John Moore was killed.

406. Much of the public attention was about this time engrossed by circumstances in the private life of the eldest son of the king. The Prince of Wales had been induced in 1795, by the prospect of having his large debts paid by the nation, to marry the Princess Caroline of Brunswick, for whom he entertained no affection. Almost ever since the marriage, he had shewn the most marked disrespect for his consort, who consequently lived separate from him, and did not herself display the prudent conduct of a British matron.

407. In 1809, Austria was induced once more to commence war with France. Upwards of half a million of men were brought into the field, under the command of the

Archduke Charles. Bonaparte, leaving Spain comparatively open to attack, moved rapidly forward into Germany, and, by the victory of Eckmühl, opened up the way to Vienna, which surrendered to him. After gaining a slight advantage at Essling, the archduke came to a second decisive encounter at Wagram, where the strength of Austria was completely broken to pieces. The peace which succeeded was sealed by the marriage of Napoleon to Maria Louisa, daughter of the Emperor of Austria. To enable him to take this step, his former wife Josephine, whose only fault was that she had borne him no children, was divorced.

408. In the autumn of 1809, the British government despatched an armament of 100,000 men, for the purpose of securing a station which should command the navigation of the Scheldt. The expedition was placed under the command of the Earl of Chatham, elder brother of Mr Pitt, a nobleman totally unacquainted with military affairs on such a scale. Under such management, the enterprise could not, in circumstances otherwise favourable, have succeeded. Too much time was put off in the preliminary siege of Flushing ; Antwerp was effectually prepared to resist every effort ; and the unhealthy season came on before anything considerable had been done. The army, having disembarked on the insalubrious island of Walcheren, was swept off in thousands by disease. The survivors returned in December, without having done anything towards the object for which they set out. This tragical affair became the subject of inquiry in the House of Commons, which, by a majority of 272 against 232, vindicated the manner in which the expedition had been managed.

409. A new expedition in Spain was attended with better success. Taking advantage of the absence of Napoleon in Austria, a considerable army was landed, April 22, 1809, under the command of Sir Arthur Wellesley, who immediately drove Soult out of Portugal, and then made a rapid move upon Madrid. King Joseph advanced with a considerable force under the command of Marshal Victor ; and, on the 28th of July, attacked the British and Spanish troops in a strong position at Talavera. The contest was obstinate and sanguinary ; and though the French did not retreat, the

advantage lay with the British. As this was almost the first success which Britain experienced by land in the course of the war, Sir Arthur Wellesley became the theme of universal praise, and he was elevated to a peerage, under the title of Viscount Wellington of Talavera. He was obliged immediately to fall back upon Portugal, where he occupied a strong position near Santarem.

410. Early in 1810, Napoleon reinforced the army in Spain, and gave orders to Massena to 'drive the British out of the peninsula.' Wellington posted his troops on the heights of Busaco—eighty thousand in number, including Portuguese—and there, on the 27th of September, was attacked by an equal number of French. Both British and Portuguese behaved well: the French were repulsed with great loss, and, for the first time in the war, conceived a respectful notion of the British troops. Wellington now retired to the lines of Torres Vedras, causing the whole country to be desolated as he went, for the purpose of embarrassing the French. When Massena observed the strength of the British position, he hesitated; and finally, in the spring of 1811, performed a disastrous and harassed retreat into Spain.

411. It now became an object of importance with Wellington to obtain possession of the Spanish fortresses which had been seized by the French. On the 22d of April, he reconnoitred Badajos, and soon after laid siege to Almeida. Massena, advancing to raise the siege, was met on fair terms at Fuentes de Onoro, May 5, and repulsed. Almeida consequently fell into the hands of the British. General Beresford, at the head of another body of British forces, gained the bloody battle of Albuera over Soult, and thereby protected the siege of Badajos, which, however, was soon after abandoned. During the same season, General Graham, in command of a third body of troops, gained the battle of Barrosa. At the end of a campaign, in which the French were upon the whole unsuccessful, Wellington retired once more into Portugal.

412. The exclusion of strangers from the House of Commons during the inquiries into the Walcheren expedition, had been made a subject of discussion in a debating club, the president

of which was therefore committed to Newgate for a breach of privilege. Sir Francis Burdett, member for Westminster, made this proceeding the subject of some acrimonious remarks in a letter to his constituents, denying the right of the House of Commons to imprison without trial, and describing that body as 'a part of our fellow-subjects, collected together by means which it is not necessary for me to describe.' The letter was voted a libel on the house, and a warrant was issued by the speaker for committing Sir Francis to the Tower. Sir Francis, denying the legality of the warrant, resisted its execution by remaining in his own house, where he was protected from the officers by immense crowds of people. After suffering a kind of siege for two days, he was forcibly taken by a large train of soldiers, and lodged in the Tower. By these proceedings, the capital was convulsed for several days; and in the course of the tumults which took place, a number of lives were lost.

Prince of Wales appointed Regent.

413. THE intellect of the king, which had experienced several temporary aberrations, gave way at the close of the year 1810, and rendered the appointment of a regent unavoidable. Accordingly, in December, the parliament imposed that duty upon the Prince of Wales, though under certain restrictions as to the appointment of officers and other branches of the royal prerogative. The Tory party had not now the same reason to dread the accession of the prince which they had in 1789. His sentiments on the Catholic claims, originally favourable, had in 1804 experienced a decided change, which proved the means of alienating him from the Whigs, with whom Catholic emancipation was a leading principle. Though he did not at first shew any disinclination to take his old friends into the ministry, he contrived, when the first year of restriction had elapsed, to let them remain in their wonted state of opposition, without seeming to have desired it.

414. The year 1811 was regarded as the period of greatest depression and distress which the British empire had known

for several ages. At this time, with the exception of an uncertain footing gained in Spain, the influence of England was unknown on the continent. Bonaparte seemed as firmly seated on the throne of France as any of her former monarchs, while every other civilised European kingdom either owned a monarch of his express appointment, or was in some other way subservient to him. By the Berlin and Milan decrees, he had shut the ports of the continent against British goods, so that they could only be smuggled into the usual markets. By British orders in council, which, though intended to be retaliatory, only increased the evil, no vessel belonging to a neutral power—such, for instance, as the United States—was permitted to carry goods to those ports, unless they should previously land and pay a duty in Britain. Thus the nation at once suffered from the shortsighted despotism of the French emperor, and from its own narrow and imperfect views of commerce; for, by embarrassing America, it only deprived itself of one of its best and almost sole-remaining customers.

Russian Campaign.

415. THE power of Bonaparte, though sudden in its rise, might have been permanent, if managed with discretion. It was used, however, in such a way as to produce a powerful reaction throughout Europe in favour of those ancient institutions, which, twenty years before, had been threatened with ruin. The exclusion of British goods, a measure which he had dictated in resentment against England, proved the source of great distress, oppression, and hardship throughout the continent, and was greatly instrumental in exciting a spirit of hostility against him. The very circumstance of a foreign power domineering over their native princes, raised a feeling in favour of those personages, which, being identified with the cause of national independence, acted as a very powerful stimulant. On the other hand, a sense of the grasping ambition of Napoleon—of his hostility to real freedom—of his unscrupulousness in throwing away the lives of his subjects for his own personal aggrandisement—had for some time been gaining ground in France itself.

416. In 1812, when the transactions in Spain had already somewhat impaired Napoleon's reputation, Alexander, Emperor of Russia, ventured upon a defiance of his decrees against British merchandise, and provoked him to a renewal of the war. With upwards of half a million of troops, appointed in the best manner, he set out for that remote country, determined to reduce it into perfect subjection. An unexpected accident defeated all his plans. The city of Moscow, after being possessed by the French troops in September, was destroyed by incendiaries, so that no shelter remained for them during the ensuing winter. Napoleon was obliged to retreat; but, overtaken by the direst inclemency of the season, his men perished by thousands in the snow. Of his splendid army, a mere skeleton regained central Europe. Returning almost alone to Paris, he contrived with great exertions to reinforce his army, though there was no replacing the veterans lost in Russia.

417. Early in 1813, he opened a campaign in northern Germany, where the Emperor of Russia, now joined by the King of Prussia and various minor powers, appeared in the open field against him. After various successes on both sides, an armistice was agreed to on the 1st of June, and Bonaparte was offered peace on condition of restoring only that part of his dominions which he had acquired since 1805. Inspired with an overweening confidence in his resources and military genius, he refused these terms, and lost all. In August, when the armistice was at an end, his father-in-law, the Emperor of Austria, joined the allies, whose forces now numbered 500,000 men, while an army of 300,000 was the largest which Napoleon could at present bring into the field. Henceforth he might be considered as overpowered by numbers. By steady, though cautious movements, the allies advanced to France, driving him reluctantly before them, and increasing their own force as the various states became emancipated by their presence. At the close of 1813, they rested upon the frontiers of France, while Lord Wellington, after two successful campaigns in Spain, had advanced in like manner to the Pyrenees.

Home Affairs—War with America.

418. SOME changes had in the meantime taken place in the British administration. On the 11th of May 1812, the premier, Mr Perceval, was shot in the lobby of the House of Commons, by a man named Bellingham, whom some private losses had rendered insane. Lords Liverpool and Castlereagh then became the ministerial leaders in the two Houses of Parliament, but were quickly voted down by a majority of four, upon a motion made by Mr Stuart Wortley, afterwards Lord Wharncliffe. The ministry was finally rendered satisfactory to parliament by the admission of Earl Harrowby as president of the council, Mr Vansittart as chancellor of the exchequer, and Lord Sidmouth (formerly premier while Mr Addington) as secretary for the home department; Lord Liverpool continuing as premier, and Lord Castlereagh as foreign and war secretary.

419. Notwithstanding the successes which were at this period brightening the prospects of Britain, the regent and his ministers did not enjoy much popularity. The regent himself did not possess those domestic virtues which are esteemed by the British people, and he had excited much disapprobation by the steps which he took for fixing a criminal charge upon his consort. The general discontents were increased by the effects of the orders in council, for prohibiting the commerce of neutral states. Vast multitudes of working-people were thrown idle by the stagnation of manufactures, and manifested their feelings in commotion and riot. The middle classes expressed their dissatisfaction, by clamours for parliamentary reform.

420. At this unhappy crisis, provoked by the orders in council, as well as by a right assumed by British war-vessels to search for and impress English sailors on board the commercial shipping of the United States, that country (June 1812) declared war against Britain. Before the news had reached London, the orders had been revoked by the influence of Lord Liverpool; but the Americans, nevertheless, were too much incensed to retrace their steps. During the summer and autumn, several rencounters took place between single American and British ships, in which the former were

successful. It was not till June 1, 1813, when the Shannon and Chesapeake met on equal terms, that the British experienced any naval triumph in this war with a kindred people. On land, the Americans endeavoured to annoy the British by assaults upon Canada, but met with no decisive success. The British landed several expeditions on the coast of the States, and were successful at Washington, at Alexandria, and one or two other points, but experienced a bloody and disastrous repulse at New Orleans. The war ended, December 1814, without settling any of the principles for which the Americans had taken up arms. But, while thus simply useless to America, it was seriously calamitous to Britain. The commerce with the States, which amounted in 1807 to twelve millions, was interrupted and nearly ruined by the orders in council, and the hostilities which they occasioned: henceforth America endeavoured to render herself commercially independent of Britain, by the encouragement of native manufactures—a policy not immediately advantageous, perhaps, to herself, but decidedly injurious to Great Britain. The fatal effects of the Berlin and Milan decrees to Napoleon, and of the orders in council to the interests of Britain, shew how extremely dangerous it is for any government to interfere violently with the large commercial systems upon which the immediate interests of their subjects depend.

Peace of 1814—Subsequent Events.

421. At the close of 1813, it was evident that Bonaparte could hardly defend himself against the vast armaments collected on all hands against him. Early in 1814, having impressed almost every youth capable of bearing arms, he opposed the allies on the frontiers with a force much inferior to theirs both in numbers and discipline. Even now he was offered peace, on condition that he should only retain France as it existed before the Revolution. But this proposition was too humiliating to his spirit to be accepted; and he entertained a hope that, at the worst, his father-in-law, the Emperor of Austria, would not permit him to be dethroned. Two months were spent in almost incessant conflict with the

advancing allies, who, on the 30th of March, entered Paris in triumph ; and, in the course of a few days, ratified a treaty with Napoleon, by which he agreed to resign the government of France, and live for the future as only sovereign of Elba, a small island in the Mediterranean.

422. In the measures for settling France, Great Britain concurred by her representative Lord Castlereagh, who attended the allies during the campaign of 1814 ; and peace was proclaimed in London on the 20th of June. France was deprived of all the acquisitions gained both under the republic and the empire, and restored to the rule of the ancient royal family in the person of Louis XVIII. The Emperor of Russia and the King of Prussia visited England in June, and were received with all the honours due to men who were considered as the liberators of Europe. Wellington, now created a duke, received a grant of £400,000 from the House of Commons, in addition to that of £100,000 previously voted ; and had the honour to receive in person the thanks of the house for his services. Representatives from the European powers concerned in the war met at Vienna, in November, in order to settle the disturbed limits of the various countries, and provide against the renewal of war. Throughout the whole arrangements, Great Britain acted with a disinterested magnanimity, which, after her great sufferings and expenses, could hardly have been looked for, but was highly worthy of the eminent name which she bore amidst European nations.

423. In March 1815, the proceedings of the congress were interrupted by intelligence that Napoleon had landed in France, and was advancing in triumph to the capital. He had been encouraged by various favourable circumstances to attempt the recovery of his throne ; and so unpopular had the new government already become, that, though he landed with only a few men, he was everywhere received with affection, and, on the 20th of March, was reinstated in his capital, which had that morning been left by Louis XVIII. The latter sovereign had granted a charter to his people, by which he and his successors were bound to rule under certain restrictions, and with a legislature composed of two chambers, somewhat resembling the British Houses of Parliament.

Bonaparte now came under similar engagements, and even submitted to take the votes of the nation for his restoration, on which occasion he had a million and a half of affirmative, against less than half a million of negative voices, the voting being performed by ballot. His exertions to reorganise an army were successful to a degree which shewed his extraordinary influence over the French nation. On the 1st of June, he had 559,000 effective men under arms, of whom 217,000 were ready to take the field.

424. A Prussian army of more than 100,000 men, under Blücher, and one of about 80,000 British, Germans, and Belgians, under Wellington, were quickly rendezvoused in the Netherlands, while still larger armies of Austrians and Russians, making the whole force above a million, were rapidly approaching. These professed to make war, not on France, but against Bonaparte alone, whom they denounced as having, by his breach of the treaty, 'placed himself out of the pale of civil and social relations, and incurred the penalty of summary execution.' Napoleon, knowing that his enemies would accumulate faster in proportion than his own troops, crossed the frontier on the 14th of June, with 120,000 men, resolved to fight Blücher and Wellington separately, if possible. The rapidity of his movements prevented that concert between the Prussian and English generals which it was their interest to establish. On the 16th, he beat Blücher at Ligny, and compelled him to retire. He had, at the same time, intrusted to Marshal Ney the duty of cutting off all connection between the two hostile armies. His policy, though not fully acted up to by his marshals, was so far successful, that Blücher retired upon a point nearly a day's march from Wellington.

425. After some further fighting next day, Napoleon brought his whole forces to bear, on the 18th, against Wellington alone, who had drawn up his troops across the road to Brussels, near a place called Waterloo. The **June 18, 1815.** battle consisted of a succession of attacks by the French upon the British lines. These assaults were attended with great bloodshed, but nevertheless resisted with the utmost fortitude, till the evening, when Blücher came up on the left flank of the British, and turned the scale against the French, who

had now to operate laterally, as well as in front. The failure of a final charge by Napoleon's reserve to produce any impression on the two armies, decided the day against him : his baffled and broken host retired before a furious charge of the Prussian cavalry, who cut them down unmercifully. On his return to Paris, Napoleon made an effort to restore the confidence of his chief counsellors, but in vain. After a fruitless abdication in favour of his son, he retired on board a small vessel at Rochfort, with the intention of proceeding to America ; but being captured by a British ship of war, he was condemned by his triumphant enemies to perpetual confinement on the island of St Helena, in the Atlantic, where he died in 1821.

426. Louis XVIII. was now restored, and the arrangements of the Congress of Vienna were completed. The expenses of Great Britain during this last year of hostilities exceeded seventy millions, and the national debt, which in 1793 had been £230,000,000, now amounted to £860,000,000.

427. During the latter years of Napoleon, a reaction had taken place throughout Europe against the innovatory doctrines, which, by producing the French Revolution, had been the cause, innocent or guilty, of so much ruinous warfare. Encouraged by this sentiment, the sovereigns of Austria, Prussia, and Russia, had no sooner settled the new government of France, than they entered, September 26, 1815, into a personal league or bond for assisting each other on all occasions when any commotion should take place among their respective subjects. This treaty was composed in somewhat obscure terms, and from its professing religion to be the sole proper guide 'in the councils of princes, in consolidating human institutions, and remedying their imperfections,' it obtained the ironical name of the *Holy Alliance*. It was published at the end of the year, and communicated to the Prince Regent of England, who approved of, but did not accede to it.

428. The reaction had also its effect in Great Britain, in fixing the power of the aristocracy, which, by composing the whole of the Upper House, and influencing the election of a major part of the Lower, might be said to constitute the

government. The security of this predominating power was indicated by several acts in which their peculiar interests were consulted. In the preceding year, an act had been passed for prohibiting the importation of grain from the continent, when the price in this country should be less than eighty shillings per quarter. An attempt to continue the income and property taxes, which pressed with the greatest severity on the wealthy and landed classes, was also negatived.

The Princess Charlotte—Popular Tumults.

429. In May 1816, the Princess Charlotte, only child of the Prince Regent, was married to Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, a young officer who had gained her affections when attending the allied sovereigns at the British court. In November 1817, to the inexpressible grief of the whole nation, the young princess died, immediately after having been delivered of a dead son.

430. In August 1816, a British armament under Lord Exmouth bombarded Algiers, and reduced that piratical state to certain desirable conditions respecting the treatment of Christian prisoners.

431. The year 1816, and the four following years, will always be memorable as an epoch of extraordinary distress, affecting almost every class of the community. The liberation of European commerce at the end of the war, produced a proportionate diminution of that trade which England had previously enjoyed, through her exclusive possession of the seas. While all public burdens continued at their former nominal amount, the prices of every kind of produce, and of every kind of goods, had fallen far below the unnatural level to which a state of war and of paper-money had raised them; and hence the expenses of the late contest, which had never been felt in the fictitious prosperity then prevalent, came to press with great severity upon the national resources, at a time when there was much less ability to bear the burden. To complete the misery of the country, the crop of 1816 fell far short of the usual quantity, and the price of bread was increased to an amount more than double what has since been the average rate.

432. Tumultuary proceedings took place in various parts of the country; and a desire for a reform in the House of Commons, which was supposed to be the only means of reducing the public expenditure, began to take deep root among the lower orders, and produced tumultuary excesses in the metropolis. The government then adopted expedients for counteracting the force of the popular spirit. They endeavoured to make it appear that an extensive conspiracy had been formed for the overthrow of the government. Of four rioters charged with high treason, a conviction was obtained only against one. Such unanimity, however, prevailed between the ministry and the parliament, that, at the close of February (1817), an act was passed for the suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act. Many persons were imprisoned, and detained for some time at the will of the ministers.

433. A temporary revival of prosperity occurred in 1818, but was quickly followed by renewed distress. In the autumn of 1819, the misery of the working-classes had reached its greatest height, and still parliamentary reform was demanded as the only measure which could permanently improve their prospects. On the 12th of July, at a public meeting in the unrepresented town of Birmingham, an attorney was elected to proceed to Westminster, and openly claim to be received as a member of parliament. On the 16th of August, a vast body of operatives assembled at Manchester, in an open space of ground, called St Peter's Field, for a similar purpose, though professedly to petition for parliamentary reform. As they came in regular array, bearing banners with inscriptions, the magistrates professed to consider the meeting as dangerous to the public peace, and accordingly, before the proceedings were far advanced, a body of troops, consisting chiefly of yeomanry, dashed into the mass, trampling down many persons of both sexes under the horses' feet, and killing and wounding others with their sabres. The meeting was dispersed by these means, and Messrs Hunt and Johnston, the principal orators, were apprehended. The tragic nature of this event, and its appearing as an invasion of the popular right of meeting for redress of grievances, produced some marks of public

resentment; but the magistrates who conducted the attack, received the immediate and cordial thanks of the government.

434. When parliament reassembled in November, there was an evident increase of attachment to the ministry, and, in addition to the strong measures already taken for suppressing popular discontent, acts were passed to suppress unstamped political publications, to prevent secret training to arms, and restrict to magistrates the right of calling public meetings.

435. On the 29th of January 1820, George III. died at Windsor, in his eighty-second year, without having experienced any lucid interval since 1810. The Prince-Regent was immediately proclaimed as **GEORGE THE FOURTH**; but there was no other change to mark the commencement of a new reign.

Miscellaneous Circumstances from 1790 to 1820.

436. OWING to the superiority of Britain at sea, she was able, to some extent, to preserve her commerce during the war, while that of France was nearly ruined. This circumstance, combined with the remarkable effects of machinery in various manufactures, and the great improvements effected in agriculture, sustained the country during a contest which otherwise must have sunk her as low as it did Austria and Prussia.

437. This period is especially memorable for the introduction of the use of steam in navigation. A model vessel, with a small steam-engine on board, was tried in 1788 by Mr Patrick Miller of Dalswinton, in Dumfriesshire. Soon after, a vessel on a larger scale was exhibited in perfect action on the Forth-and-Clyde Canal. The idea, neglected for a few years, was revived by Mr Fulton, an American, who, in 1807. established a steam-vessel on the Hudson River, the first in the world that was regularly employed in conveying passengers. In 1812, Mr Henry Bell of Helensburgh launched on the Clyde a similar vessel, which was the first seen in Europe; and from that period, steam-vessels quickly became numerous.

Their superiority in making way without regard to wind or tide, was in time universally acknowledged, and in time they came to be used in voyages across the ocean.

438. During this period, considerable efforts were made for the more general education of the people. Sunday-schools, first suggested by Mr Raikes of Gloucester, overspread the whole country, and proved the means of instructing many children who otherwise would have remained altogether ignorant. A plan of teaching children in large numbers, by employing the best pupils as monitors or assistants, was originated by Dr Bell of Madras, and widely employed; and two great societies were formed in England for the purpose of establishing and supporting schools in the districts where they were most needed. This period also beheld the rise of various societies, whose object it was to send missionaries to convert the heathen in distant lands, and to disseminate Bibles both at home and abroad. Great efforts were at the same time made in Britain to put an end to slavery in the West Indian colonies.

439. The latter part of the reign of George III. was also distinguished by great improvements in the dress and social condition of the people. In the year 1750, cocked-hats, wigs, swords, and buckles, were generally worn, and all gentlemen used hair-powder. Between the years 1790 and 1800, these and many other old fashions disappeared, and the more simple costume of the present day came into use. Speedy travelling by stage-coaches, and the rapid transmission of letters by mail-carriages, became at the same time general in all parts of the United Kingdom.

440. At no period did a more brilliant class of literary men exist. Poetry assumed new and attractive forms in the works of Campbell, Moore, Southey, Wordsworth, Byron, and Scott. The novel or fictitious tale was advanced to a dignity it had never known before, in consequence of the production, by Sir Walter Scott, of a series of such compositions, in the highest degree dramatic and entertaining. In the Edinburgh and Quarterly Reviews, periodical criticism acquired an importance it had never before possessed. At the same time, the more grave walks of divinity, history, and travels, were filled by a respectable body of writers. The name of Sir

Humphry Davy stands pre-eminent in science, which was also cultivated with distinguished success by Wollaston, Leslie, Playfair, and Robison. In philosophical literature, the names of Dugald Stewart and Thomas Brown demand peculiar respect.

Reign of George IV.—Domestic Events—Commercial Difficulties.

441. At the time when George IV. commenced his reign, the Manchester affair, and the recent proceedings of the ministry, had inspired a small band of desperate men with the design of assassinating the ministers at a cabinet dinner, and afterwards attempting to set themselves up as a provisional government. On the 23d of February 1820, they were surprised by the police in their place of meeting, and, after a desperate resistance, five were seized, among whom one Thistlewood was the chief. These wretched men were tried for high treason, and executed. Nearly about the same time, an attempt was made by the workmen in the west of Scotland to subvert the government; and two men were executed.

442. On the accession of the king, his consort's name had been omitted from the liturgy. This and other indignities induced her to return from a voluntary exile in Italy (June 1820), to the great embarrassment of the king and his ministers. Her Majesty, who had long been befriended by the Opposition, was received by the people with the warmest expressions of sympathy. Her guilt, if any really attached to her, was overlooked on account of the greater licentiousness of life ascribed to her husband, and the persecutions which she had suffered for twenty-four years. The king, who had established a system of observation round Her Majesty during her absence from the country, caused a bill of pains and penalties against her to be brought into the House of Lords, which thus became a court for her trial. The examination of witnesses occupied several weeks; but no evidence of Her Majesty's criminality could soften the indignation with which the prosecution was regarded throughout the country, and the government was at last obliged to abandon it. When the king's coronation was celebrated (July 19, 1821), the

queen made an attempt to enter Westminster Abbey, but was refused admittance by the military officers who guarded the doors. She died a few days afterwards, of an illness aggravated, if not caused, by the mortifications she had undergone.

443. During the month of August 1821, the king paid a visit to Ireland, where he was received with much cordiality by all classes of the people. In September, he paid a visit to the kingdom of Hanover. In August of the ensuing year, he completed this series of visits by a voyage to Scotland, where, owing to the novelty of the occasion, and the historical associations which it was the means of awakening, he was also received with enthusiasm. During his absence in Scotland, his leading minister, the Marquis of Londonderry (formerly Lord Castlereagh), put an end to his own life, in consequence of a morbid sense of the difficulty of his official position. His successor in the direction of Foreign Affairs was Mr George Canning, a statesman of more enlightened and humane spirit than most of his colleagues, and, among other popular qualities, possessing a rich and classical style of parliamentary eloquence.

444. The two ensuing years were characterised by an extraordinary activity in almost every department of trade and commerce. Mr Huskisson, an able commercial minister introduced by Mr Canning, originated several measures highly important; especially the repeal of all duties on goods passing between Great Britain and Ireland—an alteration in the duties affecting the silk manufacture—the repeal of the combination laws, and of the law against the emigration of artisans; while the executive formed commercial treaties, on the reciprocity system, with various countries of Europe, and by acknowledging the independence of the revolted Spanish colonies in America, drew them as additional customers into the British market.

445. Capital now so far exceeded the ordinary means of its employment, that many joint-stock companies were formed, as a means of giving it a wider range than that to which it was usually limited. Some of these associations professed objects which were by long-established usage the proper business of individuals alone, and others involved hazardous and visionary projects, which were to be carried into effect in

remote countries. The depressed state of trade in 1821 and 1822 had led to a diminished importation and production of goods, and been succeeded by an advance of prices in 1823. The consequence was a sudden and unusually active demand, and a powerful reaction of supply, which did not cease till production had far exceeded the bounds of moderation. Through the facilities afforded by large issues of paper-money, the delusion was kept up longer than it would otherwise have been. The first symptom of something being wrong, was the turning of the exchange against England. A diminution of issues at the bank followed. Merchants began to feel a difficulty in answering pecuniary obligations. Then took place a run upon the banks, some of which, both in London and in the country, were obliged to stop payment. Between October 1825 and February 1826, fifty-nine commissions of bankruptcy were issued against English country banks, and four times the number of private compositions are said to have taken place during the same period. While the merchant and manufacturer were without credit, the operatives were without employment, and distress reached almost every class of the community. Some liberal pecuniary measures on the part of the Bank of England, helped in a short time, rather by inspiring confidence than by actual disbursement of money, to restore the commerce of the country to a healthy state.

The Wellington Administration—Test and Corporation Acts—Catholic Emancipation.

446. In the spring of 1827, the illness of Lord Liverpool, followed soon after by his death, opened the way for Mr Canning's promotion to the first place in the administration ; on which occasion, for various reasons of a personal as well as of a political character, the more uncompromising class of Tories resigned their places, leaving the reins of government in the hands of a comparatively popular party. Mr Canning, however, sank under the new load imposed upon him, and died in the ensuing August. His friend Lord Goderich succeeded as premier ; but resigned in January 1828, when the Duke of Wellington was appointed in his place, with

Mr (afterwards Sir) Robert Peel as secretary for the home department.

447. This administration was chiefly remarkable for two measures, little expected from it, for the removal of religious disabilities. By the enactments called the Test and Corporation Acts, passed in the reign of Charles II., all persons were obliged to take the sacrament according to the rites of the Established Church, before sitting in parliament, or assuming any of the higher public offices, whether civil or military. This, which amounted virtually to the exclusion of Protestant dissenters from important official positions, was felt to be a severe grievance, now that their numbers were rapidly multiplying, and many of them had attained to great wealth and influence. The obnoxious acts were abolished in 1828, and the way was opened for a similar repeal of the laws which had been enacted against the Roman Catholics after the Revolution of 1688. The more severe of these (see 329, 330) had already been gradually abolished, but disabilities similar to those that had affected Protestant dissenters still remained; and the impatience of the Catholic population of Ireland under them was becoming so great, that there appeared little hope of peace or public order till their demands were conceded. The celebrated Daniel O'Connell was the leader of the agitation, which became so formidable, that Wellington and Peel gave way, though hitherto strenuously opposed to the least concession in this quarter. The scruples of the sovereign also were overcome, and the emancipation of the Roman Catholics was recommended in the speech from the throne, and passed early in the session of 1829. The consequence was the breaking up of the great Tory party, whose principles had been compromised by this act of their leading men; and it was about this time, and on this question, that those opposed to popular concessions assumed the name of Conservatives. The king did not live to see the result of the measures which had been forced upon him. He died at Windsor on the 26th June 1830, apparently little regretted. For some years he had seldom appeared to his subjects, even at the opening of parliament, but had passed a secluded life at Windsor

in indulgences ill befitting his advanced years and exalted station.

448. The foreign event most interesting to Britain in this reign, was the war in India with the Burmese, who had made frequent encroachments on the British settlements adjoining their country. A small army was sent to invade them: they were totally defeated after a severe struggle; and when the British troops were within forty-five miles of their capital, a peace was concluded, by which Britain gained a considerable accession of territory beyond the Ganges.

449. During the short period of Mr Canning's administration, England united with France and Russia on behalf of the Greek nation, who implored their assistance against the oppression of the Turkish emperor. On this occasion, the Turkish fleet was attacked by the allied powers in the harbour of Navarino, and destroyed after a desperate engagement. The independence of the Greeks was eventually attained.

Reign of William IV.—Parliamentary, Municipal and other Reforms.

450. GEORGE IV. was succeeded by his brother the Duke of Clarence, under the title of WILLIAM THE FOURTH. About a month after, a great **June 26, 1830.** sensation was produced in Britain by a revolution which took place in France, the main line of the Bourbon family being expelled, and the crown conferred upon Louis-Philippe Duke of Orleans. By this event, a new impulse was given to the reforming spirit in Britain, and the demand for an improvement in the parliamentary representation became loud and general. The consequence was the retirement of the Wellington administration in November, and the formation of a Whig cabinet, headed by Earl Grey, which came into power upon an understanding that it was to introduce bills for parliamentary reform—that is, for making the House of Commons a fair representation of the great body of the people, whereas the government and the aristocracy had hitherto enjoyed a powerful influence in the election and

nomination of its members. In the course of time, owing chiefly to the development of manufacturing and commercial industry, many large towns had risen up, which, not being ancient boroughs, had no representatives in parliament. On the other hand, many boroughs which were formerly places of importance, and still retained the privilege of sending two members, were now towns only in name, and the parliamentary seats attached to them were disposed of by the lords of the soil. It was deemed proper, therefore, that the representation should be transferred from these rotten boroughs, or pocket-boroughs, as they were called, to the large towns; and also, that the franchise should be extended, so as to embrace the middle as well as the higher classes. These measures, tending as they did to abridge the power of the aristocracy, and increase that of the people, met with strong opposition from the Conservative party. The conflict was watched with intense interest throughout the country. When the Reform bills were defeated in the House of Commons, it was dissolved, in order that the opinion of the people might be expressed in a new election, which accordingly took place under circumstances of great excitement. The new House of Commons at once passed the measures; but they could not be carried through the Upper House till the plan of creating new peers favourable to reform was proposed. The bills thus became law in the summer of 1832.

451. During the few years which followed the passing of the Reform bills, the attention of parliament was chiefly occupied by a series of measures which a large portion of the public deemed necessary for improving the institutions of the country, and for other beneficial purposes. In 1833, a reform took place in the mode of electing the councils and magistracies of the Scottish boroughs. Instead of regulations which took their rise in an early age, and had been found productive of mismanagement, the parliamentary constituencies were empowered, in all except a few cases, to choose the town-councillors, to whom then belonged the duty of appointing the requisite number out of their own body to act as magistrates. In 1835, the English municipal corporations were reformed, upon a principle similar to that applied to Scotland, except that the rate-payers and freemen were

appointed to form the electoral bodies, and that the councils in most cases were to consist of a greater number of members. A modified reform of the same kind took place in Ireland, by virtue of an act passed in 1840.

452. By these various reform bills, on which there has been much difference of opinion, a very important change was effected in constitutional arrangements. They may be said to have transferred a considerable degree of power from the aristocracy to the middle classes, who have thereupon gained a widely-extended influence as respects legislation and the ordinary administration of affairs.

453. The laws for the support of the poor in England having long been a subject of general complaint, an act was passed in 1834 for amending them. One of the chief provisions of the new enactment established a government commission for the superintendence of the local boards of management, which had latterly been ill conducted, and were now proposed to be reformed. The able-bodied poor were also deprived of the right which had been conferred upon them at the end of the eighteenth century, to compel parishes to support them, either by employment at a certain rate, or by pecuniary aid to the same amount: they were now left no resource, failing employment, but that of entering poor-houses, where they were separated from their families. The contemplated results of this measure were a reduction of the enormous burden of the poor-rates, which had latterly exceeded seven millions annually, and a check to the degradation which indiscriminate support was found to produce in the character of the labouring-classes. Some years later, the system of poor-laws for Scotland and Ireland, was also amended; but with less satisfactory results.

454. A highly-important measure, in a moral point of view, was the abolition of slavery in the colonies, the sum of twenty millions being paid to the owners of the negroes, as a compensation for resigning a right of property which had long been a disgrace to humanity. By this act, eight hundred thousand slaves were (August 1, 1834) placed in the condition of freemen, but subject to an apprenticeship to their masters for a few years. This apprenticeship was to cease, partly on the 1st of August 1838, and partly on the

same day in 1840 ; but a clamour having been raised against the duration of the apprenticeship, its period was subsequently shortened, and the negroes became universally free on the 1st of August 1838.

455. On the renewal of the charter of the East India Company, the government deprived it of its exclusive mercantile privileges, and extended to the community at large the right of trading with China. The ancient policy of not allowing Europeans to settle in Hindustan was also departed from, under some restrictions of inferior importance. Several measures of reform, equally advantageous to the public, were effected in the administration of the law, and in the privileges held by the bank of England.

456. During the same session, the ministry were opposed in endeavouring to carry through parliament a bill to enable them to take coercive measures for restraining turbulence in Ireland ; and Earl Grey, who had now passed his seventieth year, retired into private life at this juncture. He was succeeded by Viscount Melbourne, who, except during a brief period of four months, continued in office till 1841. The Melbourne administration succeeded in passing the Irish Coercion Bill ; also, an act for commuting tithes in England into a corn-rent, payable in money ; another for legalising marriages performed by dissenting ministers ; and another for a general registration of births, deaths, and marriages.

457. Although the railway system practically commenced during the reign of George IV., its development belongs more properly to that of William IV. During the seven years of William's reign (1830 to 1837) there were 139 acts of parliament passed concerning railways. Previous to 1840 there were 3000 miles of railway sanctioned. By the year 1846 there had been passed 802 acts relating to 8644 miles of railway in the United Kingdom. The years 1847-8-9 added 302 to the number of acts, and about 2000 miles to the length of railway sanctioned. Every subsequent year added to the number of acts and the length of line sanctioned ; though many of the sanctioned lines were abandoned, owing chiefly to financial difficulties. The railways open for traffic in the United Kingdom in 1864 were about 12,000 miles in

length, constructed at a cost exceeding £400,000,000, or about £34,000 per mile. The receipts were about £35,000,000 per annum, of which a trifle more than one-fourth, or £10,000,000, was net profit, available for interest and dividend. There were nearly 7000 locomotives, drawing considerably more than 200,000 passenger and goods carriages of various descriptions. The passengers made more than 200,000,000 journeys in a year; and as these journeys were found to be about 12 miles long on an average, they give the prodigious aggregate of 2,400,000,000 miles of railway travelling in our small island annually. The railways carry nearly 100,000,000 tons of goods and minerals annually, in addition to the passengers, and in addition also to 13,000,000 head of live-stock.

458. From this time, there was a marked diminution in the zeal which had for some years been manifested for changes in the national institutions. Early in 1837, the ministry again introduced into the House of Commons a bill for settling the Irish tithe question; but before this or any other measure of importance had been carried, the king died (June 20) in the seventy-third year of his age, and seventh of his reign. The deceased monarch is allowed to have been a conscientious and amiable man, of an amiable domestic disposition, not remarkable for ability, but at the same time free from gross faults. He was succeeded by his niece, the Princess VICTORIA, only child of the late Duke of Kent, fourth son of George III.

Reign of Queen Victoria.

459. QUEEN VICTORIA began to reign June 20, 1837, having just completed her eighteenth year; was crowned on the 28th of June in the following year; and was married to her cousin, Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg, February 10, 1840. From this union sprung a numerous family, giving new security to the continuance of the present dynasty. In 1843, the Queen paid a visit, entirely divested of state formalities, to the royal family of France; and shortly after made another to her uncle, the king of the Belgians. In 1845, besides making the tour of the English midland

counties, the royal pair visited the family of Prince Albert at Saxe-Coburg; receiving the attentions of the various German powers that lay on their outward and homeward route. Her Majesty received in return the friendly visits of several crowned heads, among whom were the king of the French, Leopold of Belgium, the king of Saxony, and the emperor of Russia. Such interchanges of attentions are not without their importance; at all events, they are characteristic of a new era in the history of Europe. Her Majesty also introduced the novelty of travelling through her own dominions in a manner and to an extent quite unprecedented in the annals of English history; committing herself and family to the railways of the country, without state formalities or military escort, spending some weeks every autumn in the north of Scotland, and visiting the large manufacturing and commercial towns throughout the kingdom.

460. The year 1839 was disturbed by the agitations of the Chartists—a political body, deriving their name from a so-called Charter of liberties which they deemed necessary to the well-being of the community. The points for which they proposed chiefly to contend were: that suffrage should be universal—that is, that every grown person, whatever his social position, should have a voice in the election of representatives; that these elections should be annual, and by ballot; that every man, without regard to the extent of his property, should be eligible to sit in parliament; and that he should be paid a suitable sum while thus engaged in the service of his country.

461. The Whig ministry and measures, which had for some time been losing popular favour, were set aside by a vote of 'no confidence' in the summer of 1841; a dissolution of parliament was the consequence; and after the new elections, the Opposition was found to be so far in the ascendancy, that Viscount Melbourne tendered his resignation, and retired from public life, leaving Sir Robert Peel at the helm of affairs.

462. The year 1843 witnessed the progress and decline of an agitation in Ireland for a repeal of the Union between that kingdom and Great Britain. Monster meetings were

held in various parts of the country ; but the government at length interfered to prevent them, and commenced a prosecution against Mr O'Connell and five of his coadjutors. They were condemned to two years' imprisonment ; but the judgment was set aside by the House of Lords on a technical point of law. O'Connell, considerably broken down in health and spirits, withdrew to the continent, where he died shortly afterwards.

463. South Wales was about the same time the scene of alarming riots and incendiary fires, raised by persons dressed in smock-frocks, and assuming the name of 'Rebecca and her Daughters.' The principal objects of their vengeance were the toll-bars, nearly every one of which was levelled with the ground. This disturbance also died away.

464. The same year (1843) was memorable in the religious history of Scotland. Lay-patronage had long been the vexed question of its national church, and had occasioned several considerable secessions from it. In 1834, the General Assembly had passed a law, called the *Veto Act*, for modifying this patronage ; but in the attempt to carry it out, they were thwarted by the patrons appealing to the civil courts, and finding law on their side. Under these circumstances, above 400 ministers solemnly and simultaneously left the Established Church, taking with them a large proportion of the people, and formed a separate body, known as the Free Church of Scotland.

465. About the same time arose a party in the Church of England, called Puseyites—from Dr Pusey, one of their leaders—or Tractarians, from their adherence to the doctrines of a series of tracts emanating from Oxford. Without making any open rupture, they have considerably divided the feelings of the Anglican Church, by endeavouring to restore ceremonials which they allege belonged to it before the corruptions of the middle ages. The religious jealousies which have thus arisen in each of the great divisions of the United Kingdom, have proved insuperable obstacles to the introduction of a system of national education.

466. An important alteration was made in the monetary system of the country by a law which restrained banks from

issuing more notes than they had gold to pay on demand. The people were thus rendered comparatively secure from the calamities which had often hitherto occurred from the failure of banking-houses during a panic.

467. But the abolition of the Corn-laws was the most important measure of the Peel administration, and, like the Emancipation Act of 1829, it was one quite opposed to the political principles of which Sir Robert was considered the leading representative. The Corn-laws had provided, that the duty on imported grain should be on a sliding scale, according to the necessity for it as indicated by the market-price of wheat in this country; that is, whenever home-grown wheat was so scarce as to command a high price, the importation should be encouraged by the duty being partly or wholly removed; while, on the other hand, the agriculturalists of our own country should not be discouraged by the free introduction of foreign wheat at lower prices than it was possible for them to compete with. It was now proposed (1846) by Sir Robert Peel, that the duty should be a fixed one, and so low as to encourage importation, and thus secure a constant supply at a moderate price. The measure, calculated as it was to make bread cheap and plentiful for the time to come, was received as a precious boon by the masses of the people, but with such severe disapprobation by Sir Robert's political supporters, that he resigned his office a few days after the passing of the bill. He was succeeded by Lord John Russell, to whom was assigned the task of carrying out still further the principles of free-trade.

468. The general tendency of the measures which occupied the legislature for some years after this period, was the removal of restrictions on trade and manufactures. Direct taxes on property and income were to some extent substituted for indirect ones on articles of consumption.

469. The year 1845 was remarkable for the projection of numerous railways, and a wild spirit of speculation in these schemes. So much money was sunk in prosecuting them, that there was not enough to carry on the ordinary business of the country. Many great merchants and manufacturers became bankrupt, thousands of clerks and workmen were thrown out of employment, and every department of trade

suffered depression in consequence of the scarcity of money. Meanwhile, though certainly at a great sacrifice, the railway system made immense progress, and began to overspread all parts of the country. In connection with it, the wonderful operations of the electric telegraph were brought into use; and now, after a few years, a system of communication by the electric-telegraph apparatus is established on the most important routes throughout Great Britain, and to the continent by submarine conductors. This, with the vast spread of communication by railways, forms the most interesting feature of recent times.

470. In 1848, in consequence of the impulse given by the revolution in France, the peace of Europe was for a time disturbed by attempts to establish more liberal forms of government. There were some outbreaks in both Great Britain and Ireland; but, happily, the good sense of the people preserved the United Kingdom from any serious disorders, and at no time was the Queen more securely fixed in the affection and loyalty of her subjects.

471. The event most to be deplored about this period, was the occurrence of the potato disease in Ireland, followed by a famine in that country, during which great distress was experienced. This calamity was assuaged as far as possible by the importation and distribution of food, at the expense of public and private benevolence. In consequence of their sufferings from the famine, and new arrangements which ensued respecting land, great numbers of the Irish emigrated to America, and the population of Ireland was greatly diminished.

472. Since 1848, the condition of the United Kingdom has been generally prosperous. Agriculture has steadily advanced by the extended use of more scientific methods of draining and manuring; machinery of every description has been greatly improved, and its application carried into almost every known process.

473. The period now under review is remarkable for the great efforts which were made to diffuse knowledge more generally amongst the people. *Mechanics' Institutions* were formed in most of the larger towns, for the instruction of that class of the community in mechanical and natural science.

Various periodical works of a cheap nature were commenced, for the purpose of communicating science and other branches of knowledge, in such forms as to be intelligible to the less-educated classes. At the same time, considerable efforts were made by means of ordinary schools, schools of design, and philosophical associations, to extend still further the benefits of education. Important progress was also made in the matter of public health; the erection of baths, the laying out of parks for recreation, the enforcement of better sewerage, the prohibition of underground dwellings, and the dissemination of sounder views as to cleanliness and ventilation, being features peculiar to the period. Great improvement was effected in prison-discipline by the erection of more appropriate jails, and a careful classification and treatment of criminals; while, with a view to lessen juvenile depravity, Industrial Schools for the reclaiming of poor children were established in several of the more populous towns.

Colonial and Foreign Events.

474. THE first year of Queen Victoria's reign was disturbed by the breaking out of a rebellion in Canada, in consequence of various and ill-defined political grievances. Though supported by sympathising adventurers from the United States, it was soon suppressed, and legislative measures were taken to prevent its recurrence. The provinces hitherto called Upper and Lower Canada were united under one legislative body, and everything was done to allay the conflict of races that had hitherto distracted the colony, and to give unity to the purposes and actions of the people, who hitherto had formed many different parties, pursuing various and often opposite political ends. A treaty with the United States, by which the boundary between their territories and ours in the Oregon Country, west of the Rocky Mountains, was definitely agreed on (1846), tended much to settle the state of our American colonies.

475. The British merchants residing in China for the prosecution of the tea-trade, had for several years been subject to annoyances and grievances more or less serious, which the

Chinese government refused to redress. Matters were brought to a crisis in 1840: war was declared; and a fleet was sent out with Sir Henry Pottinger as plenipotentiary. A conflict ensued, in which the English were completely victorious: China was compelled, 29th August 1842, to sign a treaty at Nanking, by which the ports of Amoy, Foo-chow, Ning-po, Shang-hae, and Canton, were thrown open to foreign commerce; to pay a large sum of money towards the expenses of the war; and to cede the small island of Hong-kong ('sweet waters') to the British.

476. Great Britain, in common with other European powers, was called on to interfere between the Ottoman Porte and Mahomet Ali, his pacha in Egypt, who had not only assumed an independent sovereignty there, but was proceeding to strip the emperor of his Asiatic dominions. When differences were arranged, Mahomet Ali was allowed to retain his position in Egypt, but was obliged to evacuate Syria.

477. An unnecessary aggression upon Affghanistan was followed by a disastrous defeat of our troops, and their subsequent withdrawal from that country; but an extension of British rule took place in India by the annexation of the Punjab, after several severe battles with the Sikhs.

478. The year 1848, as stated above, was characterised by political convulsions on the continent of Europe. On the 24th February, a revolution commenced in France, by a general rising of the people against their sovereign Louis-Philippe. He fled from the storm which was gathering round him, and took refuge in England. The people declared France a Republic, and eagerly proceeded to demolish all traces of monarchical government, with singular forbearance, however, towards the lives of individuals. The shock spread throughout Prussia, Austria, Italy; and indeed in almost every state of Europe there was a momentary struggle for constitutional government and popular freedom. A speedy reaction, however, rendered the monarchs of these states more absolute than ever. After some disturbances, not quelled without bloodshed, the French nation elected Louis Napoleon, nephew of Napoleon Bonaparte, president of their Republic, and tranquillity was in a great measure restored. On the 21st and 22d of November 1852, the

president was elected emperor by nearly eight million votes, and took the title of 'Napoleon III., Emperor of the French.'

The Great Exhibition.

479. It was at the favourable period, when continental affairs had settled down after the convulsions of 1848, and our own country had enjoyed some years of peace and prosperity, that the prince-consort of Great Britain deemed the time was come when all the nations of the world might be invited to bring together and compare the products of their various genius and industry. An immense structure of glass framed in iron was erected in London, and hither, from almost every country and clime in the world, the choicest productions of human industry were brought. Her Majesty **May 1, 1851.** opened the Exhibition in person, and continued constantly to visit it. It remained open for four months, during which time the daily attendance averaged above 43,000. Great Britain thus appeared in the enviable position of the centre of the arts of peace and industry for the whole world.

480. This wonderful structure was purchased by a joint-stock company for re-erection, and the materials were removed to Sydenham, where a new site had been found. The new building, much more elegant in form than the first, may be regarded as the greatest artificial wonder of the world. It forms a vast conservatory, in which, by simple means, the most diversified climates are obtained in various parts, and the characteristic vegetation of the different quarters of the globe is fully represented. Among the foliage are interspersed casts of the most noted groups and statues of the world. Several quadrangles are devoted to the illustration of the successive periods of architecture and decorative art, and of national manners. With a series of ornamental and architectural casts, were combined all such memorials of extinct or dormant processes of art, as may be presumed likely to afford illustrations of the past and hints for the future. Large spaces were left for the general purposes of exhibition. The grounds around the building—upwards of 250 acres—were

laid out as a park and pleasure-grounds, with fountains and other sumptuous embellishments. They contain geological illustrations, arranged not as mere collections, but so as to display the order, construction, and connection of the various strata, and their contained fossils, the appearance of the country lying over each, &c.

War with Russia.

481. AFTER a peace of forty years, England became again involved in a European war. Russia had long had an eye upon Constantinople and the European possessions of the Sultan, and had contrived in various treaties to lay the foundation of a claim to something like a protectorate of the Christian population of Turkey, who belong almost exclusively to the Greek Church, of which the Czar is the head. Taking advantage of the weakness of Turkey, the Emperor Nicholas began early in 1853 to urge this claim in a form which it was impossible for Turkey to admit without ceasing to be an independent state. The other great powers of Europe interfered as mediators, but in vain. In the meantime, a Russian army had taken possession of Moldavia and Wallachia. After nearly a year of fruitless diplomacy, negotiations were broken off, and England and France resolved to support the cause of justice by armed intervention. War was officially declared against the Emperor of Russia on the 27th of March 1854.

482. Though the immediate occasion of the war was thus a chivalrous resolve to support right against might, there was another feeling mixed up with it. The steady and stealthy encroachment of the Russian frontier in all directions had long excited uneasiness in observant men. These aggressions on the territories of her neighbours were almost always made on the plea of *protecting* discontented subjects against their legitimate sovereign. Such was the case with regard to Georgia, the Crimea, and the Ukraine. When the old pretext, then, was again heard, it became natural to ask—Where is this to stop? Is it prudent in those nations who, from their position, are safe in the

meantime, to stand by and see the others swallowed up one after another, and not rather make common cause, while power is left to resist? This feeling was no longer confined to politicians, whose special business it is to take care of the balance of power, but had become popular among the nations of the West. Perhaps nothing short of this energetic instinct of self-preservation could have succeeded in soothing down the ancient jealousies and enmities of England and France, and made their co-operation possible.

483. The war thus undertaken lasted for two years. At first the two Western Powers stood alone in their support of Turkey; but in the beginning of 1855 Sardinia boldly joined the alliance, and sent an army to the seat of war. The other powers remained neutral throughout the contest. The chief scenes of operation were the Black Sea and its vicinity, and the Baltic. Early in the Spring of 1854, a powerful English and French fleet appeared in the Gulf of Finland; but the Russian fleet declined the combat, and kept safe behind the granite fortresses of Cronstadt and Sveaborg, which, owing to shallow water and intricate navigation, were unassailable by the large vessels composing the Allied fleets. The only thing of importance effected, besides imprisoning the enemy's navy and ruining his commerce, was the destruction of the fortress of Bomarsund and the capture of the Aland Islands on which it was situated. The second Baltic campaign, in 1855, was a repetition of the first; Sveaborg was bombarded, and partially destroyed; but again the want of gun-boats confined the real services of the fleet to a strict blockade of the Russian coasts.

484. In the Black Sea the Russian fleet followed the same tactics as in the Baltic, and took refuge in the fortified harbour of Sebastopol, sinking vessels across the entrance to keep out the enemy. On land, the Turkish forces under Omer Pacha sustained, during the winter of 1853-4, a heroic contest on the Danube against the invading Russians. The French and English troops sent to the aid of the Porte were at first landed in European Turkey, chiefly at Varna (April and May). But the valiant defence of Silistria by

the Turks themselves rendered their advance in that direction unnecessary ; after using every effort for six weeks, the Russians were obliged to retire baffled from before the place, and commenced their retreat (June). After considerable inaction at Varna, during which the Allied forces suffered great loss from cholera, it was resolved to carry the war into the Crimea ; and on the 14th September an army of 25,000 English under Lord Raglan, and about as many French under Marshal St Arnaud, together with 8000 Turks, landed on the west coast, thirty miles north of Sebastopol. On the 20th they attacked and completely defeated a Russian army strongly posted on the river Alma ; then taking up a position to the south of Sebastopol, they commenced the siege of that vast fortress. During the ensuing winter, the Allied troops, especially the British, suffered incredible hardships, owing partly to deficient arrangements for providing shelter and supplies. The Russians made repeated attempts, with overwhelming masses of troops, to force the Allied position, which led to the sanguinary battles of Balaklava (October 25) and Inkermann (November 5). The chief weight of these two assaults fell on the British troops, and in both the enemy was repulsed with great loss. The prodigious extent and strength of the fortifications, together with the skilful and obstinate defence of the enemy, protracted the siege for nearly a year, and rendered it the greatest on record. Meanwhile (March 1855), the Czar Nicholas, whose pride and ambition were the cause of the contest, sunk under the effect of the enormous labours and anxiety which it had imposed upon him. Under his son and successor, Alexander II., Russia continued to sustain an unexampled drainage upon her population and resources. At last, after a terrific cannonade continued for three days, the French carried the key of Sebastopol by assault, and the south side of the city fell into the hands of the Allies (September 8, 1855). This formed the great event of the second year of the war—the operations in Asia and elsewhere being only subsidiary.

485. During winter both parties in the Crimea seemed inclined merely to maintain their actual position and prepare for a renewed struggle in spring. Austria then came

forward as mediator, and proposed terms of accommodation between the belligerents. The result was a Conference which met at Paris (March 1856), and, in a few weeks, concluded a treaty of peace.

486. Though the terms of the treaty, which guaranteed the independence of Turkey and stipulated that Russia should maintain no naval force in the Black Sea, were held by diplomatists to have secured the legitimate objects of the war, yet the popular feeling in Britain with regard to the peace was rather one of disappointment. The military authorities had been unprepared for the war, the disposable force being small and the arrangements defective; and although the personal bravery of officers and men had never shone more conspicuously, there had been evident blundering at the outset, and the military reputation of the country was felt to have suffered. At the beginning of 1856, it was known that Great Britain was ready to renew the war with both army and navy in a state of strength and efficiency far beyond what she had ever possessed. The confidence thus inspired, and the natural desire to see the warlike prestige of the nation re-established, had perhaps some share in producing that feeling of indifference with which the announcement of peace was generally received.

War with China.

487. THE commercial intercourse with China, secured by the treaty of Nanking, was interrupted in October 1856, by the seizure by the Chinese authorities at Canton of a vessel and crew entitled to British protection. The requisite apology for the insult offered to the British flag being refused, the Canton forts were taken on the 26th of the same month, and the Bogue forts in the succeeding month; but nothing decisive took place until the December of the following year, when Canton was stormed by the allied forces of England and France. In May 1858, the forts at the mouth of the Peiho were captured; and on the 26th of June, the Chinese had to consent to the signature of a treaty at Tien-tsin, among the most important of the stipulations of which were, that the

Queen of Great Britain might appoint diplomatic agents to reside at the court of Peking; that the Christian religion should enjoy the protection of the Chinese authorities; that British subjects should be permitted, under passports from their consuls, to travel in all parts of the interior of China; that British ships should be allowed to navigate the Yang-tse; the port of Chin-keang to be opened within a year after the signature of the treaty. Several cities and ports, additional to those opened up by the treaty of 1842, were also to be accessible to British subjects. The treaty also provided for the settlement of transit-dues, which had long been a vexed question; and, by a separate clause, the Chinese bound themselves to pay a million and a quarter sterling—part as indemnity for losses sustained by British subjects at Canton, and part towards the expenses of the war. With characteristic bad faith, however, the Chinese, with a force concealed in the Taku forts, unexpectedly attacked and repulsed (June 1859) the expedition forming the escort of the British and French ambassadors, who were on their way to Peking, to ratify with the emperor the treaty of the previous year. This, of course, necessitated another war with China. The Taku forts were captured, August 21, 1860, and the allied troops pushed on rapidly to Tien-tsin, and from thence, as they met with no effectual opposition, to the capital itself, which surrendered without a blow on the 13th of October, the emperor having previously fled into Tartary. In retaliation for a base violation of a flag of truce by the Tartar general, and for the brutal murder of some of the prisoners, the emperor's summer palace was sacked and razed to the ground. The spoil it yielded was immense. The Chinese authorities, now that the Allies had obtained possession of their capital, readily consented to sign a convention, recognising all the stipulations in the treaty of Tien-tsin, and providing for their immediate operation, expressing regret for the affair of the Taku forts, agreeing to pay an indemnity to the families of the murdered men and others, and ceding Cowloon to the British crown.

488. Early in the spring of 1857, the war with China, which was disapproved of by a majority of the House of Commons, led to a dissolution of parliament, and the result

of the general election was to secure a considerable number of new members in favour of the minister (Lord Palmerston)'s policy. Among the most important domestic measures engaging the attention of parliament, was one to establish a judicial procedure for divorce in England, where hitherto the marriage-tie could not be dissolved except by a special act of parliament in each case. This year witnessed also a great monetary panic, not only in Britain but in America. Copartneries carrying on gigantic operations on no better foundation than accommodation bills, tumbled down one after another, involving in their ruin many honest traders and not a few banks. Among the most notorious of the latter for the reckless support it lent to firms operating entirely on the dishonest system of accommodation bills, was the Western Bank of Scotland, the downfall of which occasioned the poverty of many families previously in the enjoyment of a competency. The sudden demand for gold caused by these failures, led (November 12) to the suspension of the act limiting the issue of Bank of England notes. This tended to relieve the pressure and restore confidence in monetary transactions. A magnificent Fine-Arts Exhibition, into which were collected all the art-treasures of the United Kingdom, was opened at Manchester during the summer, and attracted large crowds of visitors; and a Social Science Congress was formed for the purpose of discussing all matters relative to the social condition of the people. But the great event of the year which overshadowed all others, domestic and foreign, was the breaking out of the Indian Mutiny at Meerut, in May (see par. 566).

489. Among the most important events of 1858, was the marriage of the Princess-royal with Prince Frederick-William of Prussia. An attempt by Orsini on the life of the emperor of the French in January, led to the introduction of a Conspiracy Bill into the House of Commons in February, the object of which was to make conspiracy to commit murder a felony, punishable with five years' transportation, or three years' imprisonment. This being generally regarded as a concession to menaces on the part of France, an amendment on the bill was carried by a majority, and Lord Palmerston intimated his resignation on the 22d February,

when Lord Derby was called upon to form an administration. A bill for the abolition of the property qualification for members of parliament was passed; and a resolution admitting Jews to parliament, a matter which had long formed a subject of discussion, was carried. An agitation for further reform in the House of Commons was commenced. The Queen honoured the opening of the magnificent docks of Cherbourg with her presence, notwithstanding that these works were regarded as menacing to England; a treaty with Japan, removing many commercial disabilities to which our countrymen had previously been subjected, was concluded; and the Atlantic telegraph—one of the noblest achievements of science which the world ever witnessed—was successfully laid; but, unfortunately, after messages had been transmitted through the ocean for several days, communication suddenly stopped, and no efforts afterwards made succeeded in renewing it.

490. The subject which engaged most attention in 1859, was a war in Italy, in which the French Emperor was engaged as a principal party. The result of a short campaign was the complete humiliation of Austria, and the transference of a large part of Lombardy, of Tuscany, Modena, and Parma, to the rule of the king of Sardinia. A strong desire having taken possession of the Italians, that their country should form one state, under a constitutional monarch, the noted guerilla warrior, Joseph Garibaldi, landed in Sicily in May 1860, with about a thousand men, and very quickly transferred that island and the provinces of Naples to the same rule, and in February 1861 the Bourbon sovereign was forced to abandon his last stronghold at Gaeta to Piedmontese troops, himself taking refuge in Rome. At the same time, the States of the Church went through a similar change, the pope being only enabled to retain Rome itself through the protection of a French army. Though in no way implicated in either war, England gave her sympathies to the Italians in their struggle for liberty. Material aid was liberally subscribed by private persons in this country to assist the heroic Garibaldi in his generous and hazardous enterprise; and not a few adventurous young Englishmen and Scotchmen volunteered into his service.

At home, in 1859, the House of Commons was occupied with the consideration of parliamentary reform, upon which question Lord Derby's government was defeated early in the session. An appeal to the country failed to secure a majority in favour of the policy of the Earl of Derby, who accordingly resigned in June, and Lord Palmerston was again called upon to direct the affairs of state. The subject of reform was also taken up by his government in the session of 1860, but the pressure of other business, and a general public apathy about the matter, led to its further postponement. The rejection by the House of Lords of a bill to abolish the duty on paper, which was carried through the House of Commons by Mr Gladstone, seemed likely at one time to lead to a collision between the two Houses; but the Commons ultimately contented themselves with a protest against this unwonted stretch of authority on the part of the peers. A strike among the working-masons in London, lasting for many weeks, and inflicting incalculable miseries on their families, was one of the most important social subjects requiring consideration during this period. But of home events, the most absorbing was the formation of Volunteer Corps throughout the country. The unsatisfactory character of continental politics generally, and what seemed the menacing preparations of France in particular, led the public to encourage the project with a hearty unanimity seldom or never before witnessed; and ere many months had passed, it was calculated that nearly 100,000 persons had enrolled themselves as volunteers. The reviews by the Queen in the summer of nearly 20,000 men in Hyde Park, London, and of more than that number in the Queen's Park, Edinburgh, gave a stimulus to the movement; and at the end of 1860, there existed a volunteer army of about 150,000 men, whose soldierly bearing and precision left no room for fear as to their efficiency in the field, should their appearance there be required.

Recent Events.

491. THE close of 1860 and the spring of 1861 witnessed in America the commencement of one of the most remarkable civil wars by which a country has ever been desolated. Britain, although refraining from taking part in the struggle, nevertheless experienced sensibly its disastrous effects. For several years, great causes of dissension had existed between the northern or free-labour, and the southern or slave states. At length, the election to the presidency of Abraham Lincoln, a noted leader of the anti-slavery interest, caused the southern states to secede from the Union, and to establish a separate and independent republic. The initiative was taken on December 20, 1860, by South Carolina, whose example was soon followed by Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, Texas, North Carolina, Virginia, Tennessee, Arkansas, and parts of Kentucky and Missouri. These took as their designation the *Confederate States*, and elected as their president Jefferson Davis. Various negotiations took place with the view of procuring an amicable adjustment of the matters in dispute, but they proved wholly ineffectual, and the North at length proceeded to crush with vigour what it regarded as an act of treason and rebellion. With varying success, the war was fiercely and recklessly prosecuted by both sides on a gigantic scale, leading to the loss of many hundred thousand men, the devastation of a great part of the country, and the accumulation of an immense debt.

492. In consequence of England's neutrality, she incurred the intense ill-will of the Northern States. Towards the end of 1861, an incident occurred which brought the American government to the verge of a war with Great Britain. Mr Slidell and Mr Mason, envoys from the Confederate States to Europe, having embarked as passengers on board the British mail-steamer *Trent*, plying from Vera Cruz, Havannah, and St Thomas, were forcibly removed therefrom by an armed detachment, despatched for this purpose from the United States war-steamer *San Jacinto*, commanded by

Captain Wilkes. In spite of the protestations of the British Admiralty agent, Commander Williams, who was in charge of the mails on board the *Trent*, the two envoys, with their secretaries, were conveyed away by the *San Jacinto*, and imprisoned in Fort Warren, in Massachusetts. Immediately on receipt of Commander Williams's communication in England, an order was despatched to the British minister at Washington, to demand from the United States government the re-delivery to British protection of the Confederate commissioners, along with a suitable apology for the violation of international law which had taken place. Fortunately, the United States government had the good sense at once to accede to this representation; the procedure of Captain Wilkes was denounced as wholly unauthorised, and the four prisoners allowed to proceed to England. At last, this suicidal war was brought to a termination by the surrender of the South, which, almost entirely cut off from supplies of every kind, was compelled, April 1865, to yield to the overwhelming numbers brought against it by the Federals. The war had scarcely been brought to an end, when an event occurred which filled the whole of the civilised world with sadness and horror. Lincoln, who had been triumphantly re-elected president, and who had won the respect of the nations for his kind-heartedness and great practical wisdom, was assassinated, April 14, 1865, in a theatre in Washington, by Booth, an actor. This sad war had at least one highly beneficial effect; it led to an act being passed, on December 18, 1865, abolishing slavery in all the states and territories of the union, thus bestowing liberty upon upwards of three millions of human beings.

493. In 1861, the whole British nation was thrown into mourning by the death, December 14, of the Queen's consort, Prince Albert, whose shining virtues and great abilities have since caused him to be spoken of as 'Albert the Good.' During the American War, the blockade of the ports of the South, which had hitherto furnished Britain with five-sixths of her annual supply of cotton, almost totally annihilated for a time her cotton manufactures, and caused the utmost distress among the working-classes in the manufacturing districts. Large subscriptions were raised throughout the

country for the relief of the distressed operatives, who bore their severe privations with great patience and self-control. In 1862, an Industrial Exhibition was held in London, which, however, failed to attract the popular interest so strongly as that of 1851.

494. In 1862, the Greeks, who, for a considerable time previously, had been greatly dissatisfied with the conduct of their government, revolted against King Otho, who, with his consort, quietly retired to his native Bavaria. A provisional government having been formed, the Greek nation, in July 1863, elected as king Prince George of Denmark, on whose accession the Ionian Isles, which, since the overthrow of the first French Empire, had been under the protection of Britain, were ceded to Greece. The great domestic event of the year 1863 was the marriage, on the 10th March, of the Prince of Wales to the Princess Alexandra, daughter of the Danish Prince Christian of Glücksburg. The issue of the marriage has been three sons and three daughters, the eldest, born January 8, 1864, being named Prince Albert Victor.

495. On the 15th November 1863, the father of the Princess of Wales succeeded, by the death of Frederick VII., to the throne of Denmark, under the title of Christian IX. This event revived certain disputes with the Germanic Confederation, as represented mainly by Prussia and Austria, regarding the sovereignty of the Duchies of Slesvig and Holstein. The result of these disputes was a war, commenced in the spring of 1864, between Denmark on the one side, and Austria and Prussia on the other, which ended in a treaty signed at Vienna, October 30, by which Denmark agreed to resign the Duchies, Austria taking possession of Holstein, and Prussia of Slesvig. The two victors were not long in quarrelling over their ill-gotten prey. A dispute arose as to the final destination of the Duchies, and this was made a pretext for entering upon a short, but active and eventful war in June 1866; the real cause of quarrel, however, is believed to have been a rivalry which had existed for a long time between Austria and Prussia for the leadership of Germany. Bavaria, and a few others of the minor German states, raised armies in support of Austria. Prussia,

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partly from the decision and promptitude of her prime-minister, Count von Bismarck, one of the greatest statesmen of modern times, and partly from her troops being armed with a new and highly efficient weapon, the 'needle-gun,' was throughout victorious. An armistice was signed July 26; and by the treaty of Prague, 23d August 1866, Slesvig-Holstein, Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, Nassau, Frankfort, and a small part of Hesse-Darmstadt and of Bavaria, were incorporated with Prussia, which has, along with all the other German States north of the Main, been formed into a new confederacy having a 'common parliament, under the title of the *North German Confederation*. Meantime, Italy had taken advantage of Austria's extremity to endeavour to wrest Venetia from the power of the latter, and although baffled in a military point of view, obtained the prize she sought.

496. One of the most important domestic events of 1865, was the death, October 18, of the veteran statesman and prime-minister, Lord Palmerston, who for more than half a century had taken a most prominent part in the conduct of the British government. As parliament was dissolved this year, on account of its having completed the legal term of seven years—an occurrence which rarely happens—a general election took place, and the new parliament met, February 1, 1866, with Earl Russell and Mr Gladstone at the head of the government. The Liberal ministry, shortly after parliament met, brought forward a new Reform Bill, proposing to reduce the borough franchise to £5; but as in some points the bill did not meet with the entire approval of parliament, the ministry resigned in June, and was succeeded by a Conservative government, with Earl Derby and Mr Disraeli as leaders. The office of Foreign Minister was conferred upon Lord Stanley, an able statesman, eldest son of Earl Derby.

497. In 1866, after many previous failures, Britain and America were brought within speaking distance, a submarine telegraph having been successfully laid by means of the gigantic *Great Eastern* steam-ship. In this year the equanimity of Britain was somewhat disturbed by the appearance in Ireland of some reckless Irish adventurers from America, members of what is called the Fenian Brotherhood, who

sought, by working upon their patriotic susceptibilities, to stir up the Irish people to rebellion against the British government. A motley undisciplined band of these Fenians had, in the summer of this year, made themselves the laughing-stock of the world by attempting to make a raid into Canada, which proved a miserable failure. By the suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act in Ireland, and other vigorous measures, the risings were quickly suppressed, and public tranquillity was to a great extent maintained. The conspirators, however, in 1867, made England itself the scene of their operations, and managed to keep up a feeling of insecurity in the country by the perpetration of some dastardly and daring deeds. Their latest outrage was the blowing down, by means of gunpowder, of part of the wall of Clerkenwell prison in London, causing death or injury to a considerable number of inoffensive people.

498. The year 1867 was in many respects an eventful one both at home and abroad. The most important domestic event was the passing of a Reform Bill, brought forward by the Conservative government. Besides reducing the franchise, it provided for a redistribution of seats, giving representatives to places hitherto unrepresented, and increasing the number of members in the case of certain cities and counties of very large population. These changes were provided for by disfranchising four boroughs for 'corrupt practices;' while a number of others, whose population was under 10,000, were reduced to send one instead of two representatives to Parliament. It is said that the provisions of the new Reform Bill have added upwards of half a million electors to the constituency of Great Britain.

499. Through some mismanagement or neglect of the British government officials, a letter sent to the Queen by Theodore, king of Abyssinia, was in 1862 put aside unanswered, and he, taking offence at this slight put upon his dignity, imprisoned, in 1863, Her Majesty's consul and several other British subjects residing in his dominions. A reply was written in 1864, and sent to King Theodore, in charge of Mr Rassam, a native of Mosul, who did not get an audience of the king till 1866. The fact that Mr Rassam was a Turk enraged the king still more, and this British envoy was

likewise thrown into prison. Theodore, after this, appears to have conducted himself like a madman, and treated these unfortunate prisoners with the greatest harshness, so that they were frequently in dread of losing their lives. His own people he put to death by hundreds at a time. The indignity offered to the British government in the person of its representative, Mr Rassam, was the means of causing more energetic measures to be taken in order to bring Theodore to his senses, and free the captives. After all attempts failed to induce Theodore to give them their liberty, a British army, under the command of General Sir Robert Napier, landed in Abyssinia towards the end of 1867, and, after encountering many difficulties from the rugged nature of the country, arrived before Magdala, the stronghold of Theodore, in which the captives were confined. Magdala was taken by storm on 13th April 1868, the prisoners having previously been given up to the British general. After the siege the dead body of Theodore was found on the field, the unhappy monarch having fallen by his own hand. For the brilliant success of this expedition, Sir R. Napier was raised to the peerage, with the title of Baron Napier of Magdala. Simultaneously with the news of the fall of Magdala came intelligence from Australia of the attempted assassination of the Duke of Edinburgh, the Queen's second son, then on a visit to the colony. The prince was shot at and severely wounded at a picnic held near Port Jackson, New South Wales, on the 12th March. The assassin, an Irishman named O'Farrell, was soon afterwards tried and executed.

500. In February 1868, the Earl of Derby, from failing health, resigned the office of prime minister, and was succeeded by Mr Disraeli. The principal measures passed during this parliamentary session were the Scotch and Irish Reform Bills, the abolition of compulsory church-rates, and the discontinuance of public executions. But the great question of the session was that of the condition of Ireland, precipitated by further Fenian outrages. During the debate on the Irish Reform Bill, Mr Gladstone moved that the Irish Church should cease to exist as an establishment. On this question the government were repeatedly defeated, and it was ultimately resolved to adjourn the further consideration of it

until the opinion of the constituencies under the new Reform Acts could be ascertained. Parliament was accordingly dissolved in November; and the opinion of the country was found to be so thoroughly in favour of Mr Gladstone's policy, that Mr Disraeli resigned before the new parliament met, and a new administration was formed, with Mr Gladstone as premier. This government passed the Irish Church and Irish Land Acts; the former, which came into effect on January 1, 1871, disestablishing and disendowing the Church of Ireland; and the latter giving outgoing tenants in that country a title to compensation in respect of improvements made by them on their holdings. This government passed several other measures of importance. One, the Army Regulation Bill, made (1871) several important military reforms, at the same time that a royal mandate cancelled the regulations which authorised the purchase or sale of commissions in the army; another, supplementary to the Reform Acts, substituted (1872) the ballot for open voting in parliamentary and municipal elections; while by two comprehensive acts (1870 and 1872), primary education has been extended and organised in England and Scotland, being rendered, in the former almost, in the latter absolutely, compulsory. A number of elections throughout the country returning candidates who were opposed to the ministry, Mr Gladstone, in 1874, unsuccessfully appealed to the country, when a Conservative administration was formed under Mr Disraeli, the acknowledged head of the Conservative party since the death of Earl Derby in 1869.

500*. In 1870, owing to a dispute regarding the succession to the throne of Spain, a war broke out between France and Prussia, in which the latter, assisted by the whole Germanic fatherland, both north and south, was signally victorious. By treaty of peace signed February 26, 1871, France was compelled to cede to Germany the province of Alsace and a part of Lorraine, and to pay an indemnity of upwards of £200,000,000. Among the incidents of the war were the withdrawal from Rome of the French troops who had for years protected the Pope, on which the Italian troops of Victor Emanuel took possession of the city, which is now the capital of Italy, the Pope being left unmolested

in the Vatican; the proclamation of King William of Prussia as Emperor of Germany; and the expulsion from France of the Bonapartist dynasty, Napoleon III. taking refuge in England, where he died in 1873. The form of government in France is now republican. In 1872, an international tribunal sat at Geneva to adjudicate upon the claims of the United States against Britain for injury done to American commerce by the *Alabama* and other southern privateers, which were rigged out and manned in British waters. The result of the arbitration was that Britain had to pay a sum amounting to upwards of £3,000,000. In the end of 1873, war broke out on the Gold Coast of Africa with the Ashantees, who had overrun the territories of our allies, the Fantees, and were even threatening the British settlements on the coast. A force of Europeans and natives, under the command of Sir Garnet Wolseley, penetrated, in the beginning of 1874, into Ashantee territory, and captured the capital of the country, Coomassie. The king, Coffee Calcalli, failing at first to come to terms, his capital was burnt to the ground. A treaty was then concluded, by which the king agreed to pay an indemnity to Great Britain, and bound himself to respect the integrity of the British settlements, and the territories of the Fantee allies. The war being concluded, Sir Garnet Wolseley and the troops under him returned at once to England.

Of domestic events the more recent are the marriage of the Princess Louise, daughter of the Queen, to the Marquis of Lorne, eldest son of the Duke of Argyll, March 21, 1871; the severe and all but fatal illness of the Prince of Wales in the winter of 1871-2, which caused an extraordinary manifestation of loyalty and affection for the crown; the marriage, at St Petersburg, of the Queen's second son, Prince Alfred, Duke of Edinburgh, to the Grand-Duchess, Marie Alexandrowna, daughter of the Czar Alexander II., January 23, 1874; and the burial in Westminster Abbey, April 18, 1874, of the remains of David Livingstone, the illustrious African traveller, who died at Ilala, Central Africa, May 4, 1873.

Chronological Table of British Sovereigns.

Conquest of Britain by the Romans.....	B.C. 55
Relinquishment by the Romans.....	A.D. 420
Conquest of England by the Saxons.....	449
Heptarchy in England from.....	525 to about 825
Petty states united under Egbert.....	between 800 and 828

England.

ANGLO-SAXON LINE.

	Began to Reign.	End of Reign.
Egbert.....	828.....	836
Ethelwolf.....	836.....	857
Ethelbald.....	857.....	860
Ethelbert.....	860.....	866
Ethelred I.....	866.....	871
Alfred.....	871.....	901
Edward I.....	901.....	924
Athelstane.....	924.....	940
Edmund.....	940.....	946
Edred.....	946.....	955
Edwin.....	955.....	959
Edgar.....	959.....	975
Edward II.....	975.....	978
Ethelred II.....	978.....	1016
Edmund Ironside.....	1016.....	1017

DANISH LINE.

Canute I.....	1017.....	1035
Harold I.....	1035.....	1039
Hardiknute II.....	1039.....	1042

ANGLO-SAXON LINE RESTORED.

Edward the Confessor.....	1042.....	1066
Harold II.....	1066.....	1066

NORMAN LINE.

William I., or Con- queror.....	1066.....	1087
William II., or Rufus.....	1087.....	1100
Henry I.....	1100.....	1135
Stephen.....	1135.....	1154

Scotland.

The History of Scotland previous to Duncan I., 1034, is obscure and of little importance

Authentic Scottish history is usually reckoned from the reign of Malcolm III., or Canmore, 1057-1093.

Began to Reign.

End of Reign.

Duncan.....	1034.....	1040
Macbeth.....	1040.....	1057

Malcolm III., or Can- more.....	1057.....	1093
Donald VI., or Bane.....	1093.....	1098
Edgar.....	1098.....	1107
Alexander I.....	1107.....	1124
David I.....	1124.....	1153
Malcolm IV.....	1153.....	1165

England.

LINE OF PLANTAGENET.

	Began to Reign.	End of Reign.
Henry II.....	1154.....	1189
(Ireland annexed to crown of England 1172).		
Richard I., or Cœur de Lion.....	1189.....	1199
John.....	1199.....	1216
Henry III.....	1216.....	1272
Edward I.....	1272.....	1307
Edward II.....	1307.....	1327
Edward III.....	1327.....	1377
Richard II.....	1377.....	1399

LINE OF LANCASTER.

Henry IV.....	1399.....	1413
Henry V.....	1413.....	1422
Henry VI.....	1422.....	1461

LINE OF YORK.

Edward IV.....	1461.....	1483
Edward V.....	1483.....	1483
Richard III.....	1483.....	1485

LANCASTER AND YORK UNITED,
OR TUDOR LINE.

Henry VII.....	1485.....	1509
Henry VIII.....	1509.....	1547
Edward VI.....	1547.....	1553
Mary I.....	1553.....	1558
Elizabeth.....	1558.....	1603

Union of the Crowns of England and Scotland in the person of James VI., or I. of England, 1603.

LINE OF STUART.

	Began to Reign.	End of Reign.
James I.....	1603	1625
Charles I.....	1625.....	1649
[Commonwealth, Protectorate of Cromwell, &c. 1649 to 1660, but this period usually reckoned as part of the reign of Charles II.]		
Charles II., actual reign.....	1660.....	1685
James II.....	1685.....	1689

Scotland.

Began to
Reign.

End of
Reign.

William I., or the Lion.....	1165.....	1214
Alexander II.....	1214.....	1249
Alexander III.....	1249.....	1286
Margaret.....	1286.....	1290
Interregnum.		
John (Baliol).....	1292.....	1296
Interregnum—war of Wallace and Bruce with Edward I. and II.		

LINE OF BRUCE.

Robert I., or Bruce.....	1306.....	1329
David II.....	1329.....	1371

LINE OF STUART.

Robert II.....	1371.....	1390
Robert III.....	1390.....	1406
James I.....	1406.....	1437
James II.....	1437.....	1460

James III.....	1460.....	1488
James IV.....	1488.....	1513
James V.....	1513.....	1542
Mary.....	1542.....	1567
James VI.....	1567.....	

FRENCH CONTEMPORARIES.

	Began to Reign.	End of Reign.	
James I.....	1603	1625	Henri IV. died.....1610
Charles I.....	1625.....	1649	Louis XIII.....1610-1643
[Commonwealth, Protectorate of Cromwell, &c. 1649 to 1660, but this period usually reckoned as part of the reign of Charles II.]			
Charles II., actual reign.....	1660.....	1685	
James II.....	1685.....	1689	Louis XIV.....1643-1715

England and Scotland.

	Began to Reign.	End of Reign.
William III. and Mary II.....	1689.....	1702
Anne.....	1702.....	1714
(Legislative Union with Scotland 1707.)		

FRENCH CONTEMPORARIES

Great Britain.

Conclusion of Anne's reign.....	1714
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LINE OF BRUNSWICK.

George I.....	1714.....	1727
George II.....	1727.....	1760
George III.....	1760.....	1820
(Legislative Union with Ireland 1801.)		

Louis XV.....1715-1774
(Early part of his reign,
Regency of Orleans.)

Louis XVI....1774-1792
(Put to death 1793.)
Louis XVII., a child,
died in 1795 (?)
[French Republic from
1792 to 1804. Napo-
leon emperor from
1804 to 1814.]

**United Kingdom of Great Britain
and Ireland.**

Conclusion of George III.'s reign.....	1820
George IV.....	1820.....1830
William IV....	1830.....1837
Victoria.....	1837

Louis XVIII..1814-1824
Charles X.....1824-1830
Louis-Philippel830-1848
Republic1848-1852
Napoleon III.
emperor.....1852-1870
Republic.....1870

PRESENT STATE OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

Territory and Population.

501. THE British empire embraces England, Scotland; and Ireland, which form what is termed the mother-country, and a vast number of colonies and dependencies in all quarters of the world.

502. The total area of the British Islands is 121,153 square miles, or about 78 millions of acres. The population, according to the census of 1871, amounted to 31,817,108, or nearly thirty-two millions. The following table shews the respective areas and populations of the principal divisions of the United Kingdom :

	Area in Square Miles.	Population in 1871.
England.....	50,922.....	21,487,688
Wales.....	7,397.....	1,216,420
Scotland.....	30,686.....	3,358,613
Ireland.....	31,754.....	5,402,759
Channel Islands.....	112.....	90,563
Isle of Man.....	282.....	53,867
Estimated number of soldiers and sailors in Army and Navy serving abroad.....		207,198
Total.....	121,153.....	31,817,108

503. The metropolis of the empire is LONDON, with a population in 1871 of upwards of three millions, almost equal to that of the whole kingdom of Scotland. Here are situated the palaces of the sovereign and royal family, the Houses of Parliament, the chief law-courts, and numerous institutions of a national character. Edinburgh, the capital of Scotland, and Dublin, the capital of Ireland, have been only of secondary importance since the union of these countries with England. Both are still, however, the seats of their

respective national law-courts ; the latter, moreover, exhibiting a reflex of the royal presence, in the person of a viceroy or lord-lieutenant, who, assisted by a privy-council and chief-secretary, maintains a certain amount of state dignity.

504. The superficial features of England, though not devoid of variety and picturesque beauty, are, upon the whole, less marked than those of Scotland and Ireland. Generally speaking, its western side—as in Cumberland, Westmoreland, Wales, and Cornwall—is hilly, while the eastern side, sloping from these heights down to the German Ocean (as evidenced by the direction of its principal rivers), is of an undulating, flat, and sometimes monotonous character. On the whole, the surface presents much amenity, being diversified by trees and hedgerows, well-cultured fields and rich pastures, sunny slopes and fertile river-valleys. The country abounds likewise with noblemen's and gentlemen's seats, of handsome architecture ; old castles, cathedrals, and churches ; and its cottage-homes and hamlets are considered more neat and attractive than those of any other nation. No country of the same extent possesses such a number of busy, populous towns ; and these, especially in the manufacturing districts, are increasing with astonishing rapidity.

505. Scotland is more rugged and hilly than England, much indented by arms of the sea, studded with lakes, and intersected by numerous glens or mountain-valleys. Its naturally inferior soil has been much improved by art in modern times, and the surface greatly beautified by plantations, and the operations of the agriculturist.

506. Ireland is a moderately hilly and beautiful green island. Though disfigured in many places by extensive bogs and morasses, the soil, generally speaking, is extremely fertile, and only wants drainage and culture to render it superior even to that of England. The country possesses many excellent harbours, and is finely situated for trade either with the continent of Europe or America. All that is wanting to give to Ireland the same degree of prosperity enjoyed by the other parts of the empire, appears to be energy, industry, enterprise, and a spirit of self-reliance on the part of the people.

National Character, Employment, and Wealth.

507. THE people of England, Scotland, and Ireland, respectively, possess certain national peculiarities of character; but these, from the general intercourse which now prevails, are gradually disappearing, and a uniform British character is becoming daily more apparent. In this general and happy assimilation, the English qualities of mind and habits predominate.

508. The chief feature in the English character is an ardent love of liberty, which renders the people extremely tenacious of their civil rights, stern advocates of justice, and patriotic in the highest degree. In their manners, they are grave rather than gay, blunt rather than ceremonious. In their habits, they are enterprising, industrious, and provident; in their feelings, humane. The British merchant is noted for integrity and the faithful performance of promises. Though a large amount of misery and degradation exists, the upper and extensive middle classes have attained a high degree of refinement and civilisation; nowhere are the social virtues more cultivated, or such an amount of domestic comfort to be met with. There are some favourite field-sports and invigorating amusements, but the enjoyments of the English are chiefly within doors. A love of home is a marked peculiarity in the affections of the British.

509. The eminent importance attained by the British in the scale of nations, appears to depend mainly upon two features of the common character—the high moral and intellectual qualities of the people at large, and their extraordinary skill in producing articles of necessity and luxury, as well as their dexterity in the commerce by which these are diffused over the world.

510. About one-third of the population is agricultural, and it is believed that the annual value of the produce of fields, gardens, pasture, and woodlands is nearly 220 millions sterling. The farmers or lessees of the ground are, in general, much superior in wealth and style of living to the farmers of any other country in the world; being

generally, to a certain extent, capitalists, who employ labourers to perform the actual business of rural economy.

511. The mineral wealth of Great Britain forms one main source of her wealth and power, by furnishing her with facilities for conducting the various manufactures which both supply her own wants and support an immense and lucrative commerce with the other countries of the world. The value of the coal produced every year is about £26,000,000, and of the metals about £15,000,000.

512. In manufactures and commerce, Britain has long enjoyed a superiority over all other countries. For this the people have been indebted not only to their naturally industrious dispositions, and to the enlightened men who have, in the course of time, invented machinery for increasing and cheapening the products of labour, but to the extraordinary abundance of mineral substances requisite for manufactures, and to the insular nature of the country, which admits of ready maritime communication with other regions. In consequence of these advantages combined, Britain has for a long time furnished articles of clothing and household convenience to many parts of the world, receiving in exchange either money or raw produce which its own soil and climate do not permit of being grown.

513. The *Cotton Manufacture* is the most important in Britain. In 1764, the consumption of raw cotton in this country did not amount to four millions of pounds; while in 1868, the quantity of raw cotton imported was upwards of 1,300,000,000 lbs., representing the value of £55,000,000. Of this the greater part was obtained from the United States and India, and smaller quantities from Egypt, Brazil, and other countries. The cotton manufacture, which gives employment to about half a million of persons, is chiefly carried on by means of machinery in large factories, principally in Lancashire in England, and in and around Glasgow in Scotland.

514. The *Woollen Manufacture*, which is the oldest in Britain, is second to the cotton in amount, realising an annual value of about £25,000,000. This sum includes, of course, all sorts of woollen and worsted stuffs—as broad-cloths, tweeds, blanketings, flannels, carpets, hosiery; in

short, all articles into which wool enters as the principal material. Leeds, in Yorkshire, is the centre of this branch of British industry.

515. The *Linen* Manufacture has also been long prosecuted, but its progress has not been equal to that of the other manufactures. It is principally confined to the province of Ulster in Ireland, and in Scotland to the county of Forfar (in which county the town of Dundee is its great centre), and to the town of Dunfermline in Fife. Its annual value amounts to about £10,000,000.

516. The *Silk* Manufacture, introduced by French immigrants in the seventeenth century, is carried on to a great extent at Spitalfields, Coventry, Manchester, Paisley, and Glasgow. Its annual value is estimated at £10,000,000.

517. The *Hardware* Manufacture is one in which the metallic and mineral wealth of the country, combined with the skill of British workmen, has long given it a pre-eminence over other nations. The production of iron has of late years undergone great expansion, especially in Scotland. The manufacture of the finer class of hardware has its chief seats at Birmingham and Sheffield; machinery, ship-building, and the like, at Birmingham, Manchester, Liverpool, Glasgow, and Dundee; while the principal foundries for the preparation of the crude material are in Stirlingshire, Lanarkshire, Wales, and Staffordshire. The annual value of hardware manufactured in Britain has been estimated at thirty millions, giving employment to four hundred thousand hands.

518. The miscellaneous manufactures of the country are very numerous, the more important being glass, earthenware, leather, paper, soap, and malt liquors.

519. The commerce of Britain is conducted by vessels belonging to private persons within the realm, or in other countries. The chief mercantile port of Britain is London; the second, Liverpool; other large ports are Glasgow and Greenock, Dublin, Newcastle, Bristol, Leith, Hull, Belfast, Cork, and Limerick. The port of London owns one-third of the steam-vessels of the United Kingdom.

520. Besides tea, wine, sugar, and tobacco, the imports of Britain consist chiefly of raw materials for manufactures, while the exports are almost exclusively manufactured goods.

The total value of the merchandise annually imported into the United Kingdom amounts to nearly £300,000,000. The annual value of the exported produce of the United Kingdom, including foreign and colonial merchandise, amounts to about £230,000,000.

521. The currency or money of the United Kingdom consists partly of gold and silver coins, and partly of bank-notes. The centre of all the great money transactions of the British empire is London, in which is situated the Bank of England, or principal banking institution. In Scotland, which is celebrated for its well-conducted banking institutions, the money-currency is chiefly one-pound bank-notes and silver.

522. In all parts of the United Kingdom, there are now National Securities Savings-banks, and savings-banks connected with the Post-office, for the safe custody of small sums, the savings of the labourer.

Government.

523. THE government of the empire is conducted according to forms and principles which have come into operation in the course of the events detailed in the earlier part of the present volume. The executive—that is, the power by which the laws are enforced—is intrusted by the nation to a hereditary monarch, who rules under considerable limitations, and forms only one branch of the legislature. The legislature—that is, the power by which the laws are framed—consists of three distinct but combined powers: (1.) A *House of Commons*, composed of six hundred and fifty-eight gentlemen, elected by certain portions of the people to serve for a period not exceeding seven years; (2.) A *House of Peers*, composed of the hereditary nobles of England, the English archbishops and bishops, and a certain number of lords representing the Scottish and Irish peerage; and

(3.) The *King* or *Queen*. The Houses of Commons and Peers, otherwise styled the Lower and Upper Houses, form a compound deliberative body called *Parliament*, which is liable to be called together, and prorogued or dissolved at the sovereign's pleasure.

524. These law-giving and law-executing powers combine, in one system called the *British Constitution*, a variety of political principles, which elsewhere are oftener found existing singly. The House of Commons, as a representation of the people, may be said to be founded on the principle of democracy or people-sovereignty; the House of Peers, which is independent of direct popular control, presents the principle of aristocracy or noble-sovereignty; while the King contributes the monarchical principle or sovereignty of one. It must be allowed, in explanation of a system so extraordinary, that the particular portions of the constitution have not always borne the same relative power, and that principles naturally so inconsistent could never perhaps have been combined at all, except by a process extending over many ages.

525. In early times, the king possessed the chief influence, while the parliament, in general, was rather an obsequious council of the sovereign than an independent body. At the Revolution of 1688, the strength of the monarchy was diminished by a breach of the hereditary line, and the parliament became the predominant power. As the nobility and superior gentry had then the chief influence in both houses of parliament, it might be said that the aristocratic principle had become ascendant. It continued so till the passing of the Reform Bill in 1832, when the power of electing the majority of the House of Commons being extended to the middle classes of the people, the democratic principle was, for the first time, brought into any considerable degree of force.

526. The number of members in the House of Lords in 1873 was 479—namely, the Prince of Wales, 3 dukes of the blood-royal, 2 archbishops, 24 bishops, 405 English peers, 16 Scottish peers, and 28 Irish peers.

527. The House of Commons consisted in 1874 of 658 members, returned as under :

ENGLAND.....	{ Counties.....172 Cities and Boroughs.....286 Universities.....5 }	...463
WALES.....	{ Counties.....15 Boroughs.....15 }	... 30
IRELAND.....	{ Counties.....64 Cities and Boroughs.....39 University.....2 }	...105
SCOTLAND.....	{ Counties.....32 Cities and Boroughs.....26 Universities.....2 }	... 60
		<hr/> 658

528. In accordance with the Reform Act of 1867, which came into force on the 1st January 1869, the qualification for a county elector is, that he shall possess, or have a 60 years' lease of, property in the county of the annual value of £5; or shall occupy, and shall have occupied for a year preceding the last day of July in any year, property of the rateable value of £12 (in Scotland, £20); and shall have, before the 20th of July in the same year, paid all his poor-rates. The qualification of a borough elector is, that he shall have been the occupier of a dwelling-house within the borough for twelve months preceding the last day of July in any year; that he pay poor-rates, and that these rates be all paid before the 20th of July in the same year; or, that he shall have occupied, for the same period, lodgings in the borough of the clear yearly value of £10, unfurnished. In Ireland, the borough franchise is given also to occupiers of houses rated at £4. The utmost duration to which a parliament can extend is seven years, and by the new Reform Act it is provided that parliament be not dissolved, as was the usage formerly, on the demise of the sovereign, which caused a new House of Commons to be elected.

529. The members of the House of Lords enjoy their seats by hereditary privilege. The sovereign possesses the power of creating peers, and of nominating bishops. The Scottish representative peers are elected by the whole body of the peerage of that country, at the commencement of every

new parliament, or on the occurrence of a vacancy; the Irish representative peers are elected also by the whole body of the peerage of their country, but for life. Several of the Scotch and Irish peers are also peers of England, by virtue of which they enjoy seats in the House of Lords, at the same time that they exercise their elective functions in Scotland or Ireland, as the case may be.

530. The king is not only at the head of the executive; he is also the head of the church, the commander of the army, the dispenser of all titles of honour, and even, by a fiction of the law, the person of whom all the landed property in his dominions is held. In the right of appointing the bishops, the judges, the lords-lieutenant and justices of peace of counties, the officers of the army and navy, and many other officers and public servants, he possesses a large amount of patronage, which conduces in no small degree to the maintenance of his authority. He has also the sole right of declaring war, though he is effectually controlled by the House of Commons, which may give or withhold the requisite funds as it sees proper. Out of respect for the hereditary principle and the royal character, it is held that the king cannot of himself do any wrong, or be personally called to account for his actions. The responsibility for the performance of his functions rests with a body of servants, chosen by himself, and designated his *Ministers*, who cannot continue in that character without the approbation of parliament, and are liable to be impeached by that body if they commit any grievous error.

531. Certain of these ministers constitute what is called the *Cabinet*, which usually consists of the following officers:

First Lord of the Treasury or Prime-Minister.
 Lord Chancellor.
 Chancellor of the Exchequer.
 Lord President of the Privy-Council.
 Lord Privy Seal.
 Home Secretary.
 Foreign Secretary.

Colonial Secretary.
 Secretary at War.
 Secretary for India.
 First Lord of the Admiralty.
 President of the Board of Trade.
 President of the Poor-law Board.
 Postmaster-general.
 Chancellor of Duchy of Lancaster.

Besides this body, the king has a *Privy-Council*, consisting of persons eminent from rank, office, or personal character,

who may be at variance with the Cabinet-Council, but take no share in the government, except when summoned by the royal authority. They are then in the same situation with the Cabinet Ministers, and responsible for the advice they give.

532. The two Houses of Parliament usually sit during a considerable portion of every year, in deliberation upon the affairs of the country, and for the enactment of new, or the repeal of old laws. Any member of either House may propose a new law; but this duty is chiefly undertaken by the king's ministers, and it is to the Lower or Commons House that new laws are usually first proposed. When a proposed law has been introduced in the shape of a bill, and sanctioned in one House, it passes on to the other, which may receive, modify, or reject it. If it passes both, it is submitted to the king, who may give or withhold his approbation. When it has received the sanction of all the three branches of the legislature, it is called an Act of Parliament, and becomes part of the laws of the country. The bills for the pecuniary supplies necessary for the public service are introduced exclusively by the House of Commons: they may be rejected by the House of Lords; but for that House to alter them, or to introduce any bill which involves pecuniary supply to the government, is considered a breach of the privileges of the Lower House.

Revenue, Expenditure, and Armed Force.

533. THE public revenue of the United Kingdom is at present derived principally from five sources—namely, customs, excise, stamp-duties, assessed taxes, and property and income tax. *Customs-duties* are charged on a certain number of articles imported into the country. *Excise-duties* are charged on certain commodities produced or manufactured at home. *Stamp-duties* are mostly laid on the parchment or paper on which certain deeds, receipts, bills, and promissory-notes are written or printed. *Assessed taxes* include the duties on houses and such things as carriages, male servants, dogs, &c. The *Property and income tax* is levied on all incomes above £100, whether arising from the possession of property, or from the profits of trade, profession, or other employment. There are some other inferior sources of revenue, such as the Post-office.

534. The gross revenue of the United Kingdom for the year ending 31st March 1873 was upwards of 76 millions, and the total expenditure nearly 71 millions.

535. The public expenditure is made up of a vast variety of items, the most important of which are the interest of the National Debt, and the maintenance of the army and navy. The amount of the debt at 31st March 1873 was £785,000,000, chiefly composed of various stocks, or loans at certain rates of interest. Lenders of money to the public are called stock or fund holders. The charge for the funded and unfunded debt in 1873 was upwards of $26\frac{1}{2}$ millions.

536. The home-territories of the empire are alone concerned in maintaining and controlling the government. It has been seen that an attempt to raise taxes in the colonies of North America, which sent no parliamentary representatives to join in imposing them, was the means of separating those colonies from the parent state. Since then, no similar attempt has been made in any other colonies of Great Britain. The most important of these are managed under the supreme direction of the British government, by governors appointed by the king and by

legislative bodies, raised within themselves, and resembling the British parliament. The revenue of the home-country is nevertheless employed in protecting and fostering these dependencies, which have been ascertained to cost considerably more, year by year, than any direct profit which can be derived from the commerce which they carry on with British merchants.

537. The army of Great Britain has always maintained a high reputation for good conduct, valour, and fortitude; and her navy, unequalled in the annals of the world, has afforded the means of protecting her commerce, and securing her possessions in the most distant quarters of the globe.

538. The number of officers and men of the British army provided for in the Army Estimates for the year ending 31st March 1874 was 169,000, of whom about 63,000 were charged to the Indian establishment. To this may be added the auxiliary force known as the militia, which is only called out for a short period in each year, and whose service does not extend beyond the British Islands. The number provided for in the estimates of 1873-74 is 139,000. There are also the rifle and artillery volunteers, numbering 161,000; the yeomanry cavalry, 15,000; and an army reserve force of 35,000 men. The number of officers and men voted for the navy, including the marines and coast-guard service, in 1874, was 61,000. Great changes have taken place in the British navy of late years, first through the introduction of steamers, and then by the construction of armour-plated vessels, designed to be almost impervious to cannon-shot. The number of vessels in the British navy in commission on December 1, 1872, amounted to 226.

539. A distinguishing feature of the British army and navy is the care taken of the men. Few nations so generously as the British, clothe, feed, and pay their soldiers and sailors; such cases as the privations of the Crimea are exceptional and temporary.

Dispensation of Laws.

540. JUSTICE, civil and criminal, is administered in England and Ireland according to laws and forms which took their rise in the former country, and were in time extended to the latter. The English law, as it is comprehensively termed, is of two kinds—written or *statute* law, consisting of the laws established by acts of parliament; and *consuetudinary* law, consisting of customs which have existed from time immemorial, and have received the sanction of the judges. Consuetudinary law is again divided into common law and equity—the former is administered by courts which profess to adhere strictly to the old laws of England, except in so far as they are altered by statute; the latter was founded upon the principle that the king, in cases of hardship, was entitled to give relief from the strictness of the common law. Equity, though thus originated, has now become also a fixed kind of law, and is administered in courts which decide according to established rules.

541. The principal court for civil suits is the Court of Common Pleas. The Court of King's (or Queen's) Bench, which was at first only a criminal tribunal, and the Court of Exchequer, which was designed only to decide in cases concerning the revenue, have become civil courts by means of fictions in their respective modes of procedure. The Court of Chancery, presided over by the Lord Chancellor, administers the law of equity. Courts under these designations sit both in Westminster and in Dublin: there are also Courts of Assize, which, in England, perform six provincial circuits, in some instances once, and in others twice a year. Minor cases, criminal as well as civil, are judged by bodies of provincial magistracy, who meet in every county once every quarter of a year. Besides the civil and criminal tribunals, there are Ecclesiastical Courts, which have jurisdiction in matters connected with marriages, wills, and all matters of social polity, and adopt the principles of the old canon law. There are also courts of Admiralty, which decide questions

between persons of different nations, according to the code of civil law recognised throughout Europe.

542. Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and other small islands in the British Channel, which politically belong to the United Kingdom, possess a variety of peculiar privileges and legal usages. The Isle of Man, situated in the Irish Sea, likewise possesses certain peculiar privileges.

543. In Scotland, laws peculiar to itself, founded in part upon the principles of the Roman and the feudal law, are administered by a supreme civil tribunal, denominated the Court of Session, which remains fixed at Edinburgh, and by a criminal tribunal, named the Court of Justiciary, which not only sits in the same city, but makes circuits through the country. Minor civil and criminal cases are also judged in Scotland by the sheriffs of the various counties, the justices of the peace, and the magistrates of boroughs. Scotland possesses the advantage of public prosecution of offences, the injured party being only a complainer to the public prosecutor. The chief public prosecutor is the Lord Advocate: the inferior public prosecutors, in connection with the various minor courts, are termed procurators-fiscal. The whole expense of prosecution is defrayed by the respective counties and the national exchequer.

544. The peculiar boast of the criminal law of the British empire is *Trial by Jury*. In England and Ireland, where the principle of the criminal law requires the injured party or his representative to prosecute, he can only do so by a permission of a jury of accusation, called the Grand Jury; another jury sits for the purpose of deciding whether the evidence against the accused has established the guilt. These juries consist in England and Ireland of twelve men, whose verdict must be *unanimous*. In Scotland, there is no grand jury, and there the jury upon the charge consists of fifteen men, who decide by a *majority* of votes. The jury is an institution of Scandinavian origin, transmitted to Britain through the Danes and Saxons, and it is justly considered as a most efficient protection of the subject from the vindictiveness of power. Civil cases, turning upon matters of fact, are also decided by juries in all parts of the United Kingdom.

545. The House of Lords, as the great council of the sovereign, acts as a court of final appeal from the civil tribunals of Britain and Ireland. Practically, the business of hearing these appeals is undertaken by some law-lord, such as the Lord Chancellor, who, as there must be three persons present, is usually accompanied by a temporal peer and a bishop. Before deciding, the House sometimes demands the opinions of the English judges.

546. Next in point of value to the privilege of trial by jury, the British subject places the *right of petition* to the Houses of Parliament, either for an improvement in the laws, or a redress of grievances. As this involves the right of assembling publicly in a peaceful manner, or of *meeting constitutionally*, to discuss measures of government and legislation, it is considered as forming the impregnable bulwark of British political freedom.

Religion—Education.

547. ALL classes of religious thinkers receive toleration from the British government, except those who openly offend against public decency and the public peace. In England, the Protestant Episcopalian form of church-government and worship is established in intimate alliance with the state, the sovereign being its supreme head, with a hierarchy composed of archbishops, bishops, deans, archdeacons, and other clergy. In Ireland, there is now no established church, the Protestant Episcopal Church, which was united to the Church of England, having been disestablished on the 1st January 1871. In Scotland, the established religion is the Protestant Presbyterian, the clergy of which are all equal in status, and under no rule but what they themselves form in their church-courts, presbyteries, synods, and the General Assembly, the last of which meets annually, in presence of a royal commissioner.

548. In England, the Established Church comprehends above 14,000 places of worship. The church in Ireland numbers nearly 1400 benefices, distributed over above 2000 parishes; while the Scottish Presbyterian establishment embraces above 1200 churches, in about 1000 parishes. The established clergy are supported by public funds, chiefly arising from the fruits of the earth; hence their congregations, in general, enjoy their ministrations gratuitously. Nevertheless, a large proportion of the middle and lower classes of the people prefer supporting, by voluntary contribution, religious ministrations more accordant with their peculiar opinions.

549. The chief institutions for education in England are—the ancient national universities of Oxford and Cambridge; the more recent universities of London and Durham, and the various colleges in London, Manchester, and other places; the classical schools of Eton, Westminster, Winchester, Harrow, Charterhouse, Rugby, Cheltenham, Marlborough, Merchant Taylors', and City of London; the military colleges of Sandhurst and Woolwich; the colleges of various religious denominations; and the elementary schools in connection with the different churches; those of the National and the British and Foreign Societies, and those under school-boards.

550. Ireland possesses five collegiate establishments, in which the higher departments of science and literature are taught—namely: Trinity College, Dublin; the Roman Catholic College of Maynooth; and the three provincial Queen's Colleges of Cork, Belfast, and Galway; with their common central university, unrestricted by religious tests, and open to students of any denomination.

551. The chief educational establishments in Scotland are: the universities of St Andrews, Aberdeen, Glasgow, and Edinburgh, open to students of all denominations; minor colleges connected with the Episcopalian, Catholic, and Free churches; a number of academies and grammar-schools established in the cities and burghs; several excellent institutions endowed by private bequests; and the elementary schools which have long been established in every parish, and now under school-boards.

552. With regard to primary instruction, there is in

England a national system established by the Education Act of 1870, when it was ordered that 'there shall be provided for every school district a sufficient amount of accommodation in public elementary schools available for all the children resident in such district, for whose elementary education efficient and suitable provision is not otherwise made.' It was further enacted that all children attending these schools, whose parents are unable from poverty to pay anything towards their education, should be admitted free, and the expenses so incurred be discharged from local rates. The new schools are placed in each district under School Boards, which have the power to compel parents to send to school all children between the ages of five and thirteen. In Scotland, the Education Act of 1872 enacted compulsory education for children between the ages of 5 and 13, and enforced the election of a school-board in each parish by the ratepayers, charged with the duty of levying a local rate in support of the schools, of prosecuting parents who neglected to send their children to school, and with the expense of educating children whose parents were unable to pay for their instruction. No religious teaching is permitted except after or before the ordinary time laid down for secular instruction. In Ireland, there is a national system maintained by the state. In the British colonies, adequate state systems of education have been provided.

History of the Colonial Dependencies of Britain.

553. **BRITAIN** possesses upwards of thirty dependencies in different parts of the world, which it acquired by virtue of discovery or conquest. The dependencies are of two kinds—military establishments, useful for the concentration of naval forces, such as Gibraltar; and colonial possessions, valuable for trade and the reception of emigrant settlers, but

still more important as the means of extending the English language, arts, and civilised usages. The subjoined table gives a list of the dependencies of Great Britain, with their respective areas and populations according to the latest returns :

	Area in Square Miles.	Population.
EUROPE :		
Gibraltar.....	2.....	18,695
Malta and Gozo, &c.....	142.....	141,918
Heligoland.....	1.....	1,912
Total in Europe.....	<u>144</u>	<u>162,525</u>
ASIA :		
British India.....	966,936.....	190,278,644
Ceylon.....	24,700.....	2,405,287
Straits Settlements.....	1,225.....	308,097
Hong-Kong.....	32.....	124,198
Labuan.....	45.....	4,898
Total in Asia.....	<u>992,938</u>	<u>193,121,124</u>
AUSTRALASIA :		
New South Wales.....	308,560.....	503,981
Western Australia.....	975,824.....	24,785
South Australia.....	380,602.....	185,626
Victoria.....	88,451.....	730,198
Queensland.....	668,259.....	120,104
Northern Territory.....	523,531.....	201
Tasmania.....	26,215.....	99,328
New Zealand.....	106,259.....	293,895
Total in Australasia.....	<u>3,077,701</u>	<u>1,958,118</u>
AFRICA :		
Cape Colony.....	221,311.....	682,600
Natal.....	17,801.....	289,773
Mauritius.....	708.....	318,584
Sierra Leone.....	468.....	55,374
Gambia.....	21.....	14,190
Gold Coast.....	16,626.....	408,070
Lagos.....	115,000
St Helena.....	47.....	6,444
Total in Africa.....	<u>256,982</u>	<u>1,890,035</u>

	Area in Square Miles.	Population.
NORTH AMERICA :		
Dominion of Canada, consisting of		
Ontario.....	107,780.....	1,620,851
Quebec.....	193,355.....	1,191,516
New Brunswick.....	27,322.....	285,594
Nova Scotia.....	21,731.....	387,800
British Columbia.....	213,000.....	50,000
Manitoba.....	14,340.....	11,963
Prince Edward Island.....	2,173.....	94,021
North-West Territory.....	2,880,000.....	68,000
Newfoundland.....	40,200.....	146,536
Total in N. America.....	3,499,901.....	3,856,281
WEST INDIES, &c. :		
Jamaica.....	4,250.....	506,154
Turk's Islands.....	2,103.....	4,723
Barbadoes.....	166.....	162,042
St Vincent.....	131.....	35,688
Grenada.....	133.....	38,423
Tobago.....	97.....	17,054
St Lucia.....	250.....	31,610
Trinidad.....	1,754.....	109,638
Antigua.....	183.....	35,157
St Christopher.....	103.....	28,169
Montserrat.....	47.....	8,693
Nevis.....	50.....	11,735
Dominica.....	291.....	27,178
Virgin Islands.....	57.....	6,651
Bahama Islands.....	3,021.....	39,162
Bermuda Islands.....	24.....	12,121
British Guiana.....	99,925.....	193,491
British Honduras.....	13,500.....	24,700
Falkland Islands.....	4,741.....	811
Total in West Indies, &c.....	130,826.....	1,293,200
Total of British Foreign Possessions.....		
	7,958,492.....	202,281,283

554. *America and the West Indies.*—The Spaniards and Portuguese were the first European nations that colonised the New World. When the native Indians perished before them, they imported negroes from Africa to perform agricultural labour as slaves. The English were not slow to follow in their steps. Sir Walter Raleigh formed a settlement in North America about the year 1607, and called it Virginia, in honour of Queen Elizabeth. Two companies of merchants enlarged the British territory, part

of which received the name of New England ; and, subsequently, numerous bands of religious and political refugees sought a home on its shores ; but, as has already been mentioned, when these colonies rose in wealth and strength, they found themselves in a position to maintain their independence of the mother-country, and, before the close of the last century, achieved that independence ; so that they are no longer known to us as our colonies, but as the independent republic of the United States of America.

555. The settlements in the West Indian Islands began to flourish in the first half of the seventeenth century, when factories were established by private companies in Barbadoes and St Christopher's, and the culture of the sugar-cane, transplanted from Brazil, was found to succeed. During the Protectorate of Cromwell, Jamaica was conquered from Spain, and opened a new source of wealth. Trinidad ; the smaller islands ; the district of Honduras or Belize, on the adjacent coast of North America ; and Guiana, in South America, have been since acquired at various periods, and chiefly by conquest from Spain, Holland, and France. All these territories are together denominated the British West Indies. They are the oldest of our existing colonies, and are rich in every tropical product, yielding sugar, coffee, tobacco, cotton, cabinet-timber, spices, fruits, drugs, and dye-stuffs.

556. Since the abolition of slavery in 1834 by the British government, the want of labourers has been severely felt, the coloured population being generally disinclined to hired labour, and the work to be done being unsuitable to Europeans. These colonies are, therefore, somewhat on the decline.

557. The British possessions in North America embrace the Dominion of *Canada* (see table, page 299) and *Newfoundland*. *British Columbia*, a fruitful gold-field, erected into a colony in 1858, out of a portion of the vast region stretching to the Arctic Ocean, occupied by savage tribes and the trappers of the Hudson Bay Company, entered the Dominion in 1871 ; another district, called *Manitoba*, or the Red River Settlement, in 1870 ; and *Prince Edward Island* in 1873.

558. Canada was colonised during the sixteenth and

seventeenth centuries by the French, who held it under military rule, and waged frequent and sanguinary war with the native tribes. Quebec, the capital, was taken by the English under general Wolfe in 1759, and the whole province was ceded to Britain in 1763. An act of the British legislature, in 1791, divided Canada into Upper and Lower, gave each province a representative assembly; and in Lower Canada, with a view to conciliating the inhabitants, established their old system of French law, the French language, and the Roman Catholic form of religion. This arrangement, unfortunately, kept up a broad and inconvenient line of demarcation between the descendants of the original French colonists, and the more recent English immigrants, and feelings of antipathy were the result. In Upper or Western Canada, there were troubles from other causes; and at length, in 1837, a rebellion broke out against the authority of the British government. This, though attended with immediate consequences of a distressing kind, led to liberal measures on the part of the mother-country for the future government of Canada. Left in a great measure to the management of its own affairs, with only a governor-general of British appointment, and greatly cleared and improved, it is now in a contented and flourishing condition.

559. The name Canada has recently acquired a more enlarged signification. An act of parliament came into force 1st June 1867, uniting federally the former separate provinces of Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick into one *Dominion* under the name of *Canada*. It now consists of six provinces—Quebec, Ontario, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, British Columbia, and Manitoba, and the island of Prince Edward. The constitution is after the model of the mother-country. The parliament consists of the Queen, represented by the Governor-general, who is assisted by a Privy Council; an Upper House styled the Senate; and a House of Commons. Each province has an executive and legislature of its own, presided over by a Lieutenant-governor, elected by the Governor-general. Provision is made for the introduction of uniformity of laws, which, however, must be with the consent of the

legislatures of the several provinces. From this union, which was effected only after much hesitation on the part of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, great advantages are likely to accrue to the various members of the Dominion. The mercantile shipping of the new Dominion ranks next in importance after those of Great Britain, the United States, and France.

560. In the cities of Quebec and Montreal and the surrounding country, the French language is still prevalent. In Ontario or Western Canada, the English language is universal, and in this division of the united province there prevails the greatest spirit of enterprise and improvement. To Upper Canada, a large number of emigrants from the United Kingdom proceed annually.

561. The regions north of Canada continued, down to 1857, in the hands of the Hudson's Bay Company, which was incorporated by charter from Charles II. in 1669, and which enjoyed a monopoly both of the trade and government of a dreary country, occupied by Esquimaux, who hunt the wild animals, and by servants of the Company, consisting of about 1000 Europeans and their offspring, who collect the hides and furs for exportation. In 1857 the charter of the Company expired, and was not renewed; but in the following year, that portion of the territory, extending between lat. 49° — 55° N., and long. 115° — 133° W., was erected into a colony under the name of British Columbia; and a considerable number of people, attracted by the gold-fields, have been drawn there from all parts of the world.

562. Newfoundland and the other territories adjoining were, like Canada, acquisitions from the French during the last century. It is highly probable that ere long Newfoundland will follow the example of the other colonies, and apply for admission into the Canadian Confederation, and then the 'Dominion of Canada' will be a phrase synonymous with the historical one, 'British North America.' This vast extent of territory, a future rival to Russia, and extending from the latitude of Rome to the Arctic Ocean, stands in superficial area above the United States, and a little below Europe.

563. *East Indies*.—The rise of the British power in India is one of the most surprising facts in history. It originated in a charter granted in 1600 by Queen Elizabeth to a body of English merchants, since known as the East India Company. In 1611, they received permission from the native government at Delhi to establish factories at Surat, and other spots in Western Hindustan. About the middle of the seventeenth century, a settlement was formed at Madras; and by the marriage of Charles II. with a princess of Portugal, the valuable position of Bombay was also obtained. At the beginning of the eighteenth century, the French influence in India was considerable, and their settlements superior to the English; but from the year 1750, when the forces of the two nations came into collision, the French gradually gave way, while our territories rapidly extended; and a succession of conquests, almost forced upon us, placed one district of India after another in our power.

564. The fortress of Calcutta, erected in 1699, increased in importance so rapidly as to excite the jealousy of the native sovereigns, one of whom suddenly invested and took it in 1756; but it was speedily retaken, and new territories acquired. The French power in India was finally destroyed in 1761, by the reduction of Pondicherry. A few years afterwards, the Mogul conferred on the East India Company the revenues of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, recognising their sovereignty over certain districts in which their arms had prevailed. They were now virtually the rulers of the Carnatic; and the Nizam had granted them the Northern Circars on condition of protection.

565. In 1773, it was deemed proper to place a check on the rapidly-increasing power of the Company, by the appointment of a governor-general on behalf of the crown. At a later period, a Council and a Board of Control were added. In 1780, Hyder Ali, the sultan of Mysore, suddenly burst into the Carnatic, with an overwhelming force, and ravaged all before him. The war, which was continued with various success under his son, Tippoo Saib, terminated at length in the capture of Seringapatam and the death of Tippoo, whose kingdom became the spoil of the English. Early in the

present century, the jealousy of some of the Mahratta rulers led to another war of conquest, which gave the victors extensive territories in Central India, including Delhi, the Mogul capital, and Agra, with the custody of the Mogul emperor. A war, provoked by the Burmese government in 1826, added Assam and other provinces east of the Bay of Bengal to British India. During the war with Afghanistan, which lasted from 1839 till 1842, it was felt to be very desirable for the British to command the navigation of the Indus; this led to the conquest of Scinde by Sir Charles Napier in 1843, and its annexation to the British dominions. In the adjacent kingdom of the Punjab, a contention among the Sikh chiefs for the vacant throne led to anarchy and aggressions, which provoked a collision with the English forces in 1845. After a series of severe and bloody conflicts, the Sikhs were totally defeated, and (1849) the Punjab became part of British India. A fresh quarrel with the Burmese government led to a similar result with regard to the province of Pegu, which was annexed in 1852.

566. In July 1857, news of a fearful mutiny of the sepoy having broken out at Meerut arrived in England. Signs of disaffection had been manifest among the native troops for some months before, but nothing like serious danger was apprehended until 10th May, when the sepoy of the 3d Light Cavalry and the 11th and 20th Regiments of Infantry rose at Meerut, and brutally murdered their officers. By the end of June, 50,000 men were in revolt, the rebels almost everywhere repeating the barbarities of Meerut. The few European troops in India at this awful crisis exhibited extraordinary heroism, and the government at home, though at first rather dilatory in their movements, soon rose to the magnitude of the crisis, and by the end of the year more than 30,000 troops had landed in India. But before this, the important arsenal of Delhi, which had been seized on the outbreak of the mutiny by the rebels, had been (September) stormed and captured; Lucknow, where a few Europeans had bravely maintained themselves for months against a hostile population of about 300,000 and a rebel army of 70,000, had been (November) finally relieved

by Sir Colin Campbell; and the rebellion so far crushed, as to leave its utter extinguishment matter of absolute certainty. The mutiny appears to have originated in an impression that the British government contemplated the conversion of the sepoys to the Christian religion by force.

567. The revolt had the effect of directing public attention to the anomalous character of the East India Company, and in 1858, an act was passed transferring its authority to the British government, which now exercises a direct control over all Indian matters, the East India Company and the Board of Control expiring in September 1858. In November, a royal proclamation of the new form of government was made in all parts of India, and an amnesty to those not actually concerned in the murder of the English promised, and perfect religious freedom decreed.

568. Besides the above, a very large portion of Hindustan is under the protection, though not the direct government, of Britain. The island of *Ceylon*, situated off the southern promontory of Hindustan, is now one of the most valuable of British possessions. It received European colonists first from Portugal in 1520. They were superseded by the Dutch in the seventeenth century, and these and the French settlers by the English towards the close of the eighteenth. Finally, in 1815, the British government, at the invitation of the native chiefs, assumed the sovereignty of the whole island. It is celebrated for its extensive cinnamon and coffee plantations, and its valuable pearl-fishery.

569. The whole of these territories lying in or near Hindustan, are known by the common appellation of *East Indies* from their geographical position; they yield every species of tropical produce, as sugar, coffee, tea, rice, silk, cotton, hard-woods, ivory, spices, fruits, drugs, dye-stuffs, and other similar commodities.

570. In *Australasia*, the British settlements now form seven distinct colonies. Of these, five belong to the great island of Australia, two being situated on its eastern, two on its southern, and one on its western shore. Their names

are—*New South Wales*, capital Sydney, established in 1788; *Queensland*, lying to the north of New South Wales, and erected into a separate colony in 1859, capital Brisbane; *Victoria*, in 1836, capital Melbourne; *South Australia*, also in 1836, capital Adelaide; and *Western Australia*, settled in 1829, capital Perth. The colonisation of this part of the world began by the practice of depositing criminals on the coasts of Australia, after the American war of independence put a stop to their being transported to the plantations of the New World. One spot, from the profusion of flowers found on it, called Botany Bay, was long used as a penal settlement; and thus the town of Port Jackson, or Sydney, had its origin. But the advantages of the place tempted free emigrants to settle in it, and Van Diemen's Land became the penal settlement instead of New South Wales. The settlements in Victoria and South Australia were made by free emigrants from Sydney and the home-country; and convicts are no longer sent to any of the colonies, except Western Australia. The staple productions were at first the wool, tallow, and hides of the numerous sheep and cattle fed on the natural pasture. To this has been added copper, and more recently gold, of which the quantities exported from New South Wales and Victoria, in 1860, amounted in value to more than ten millions sterling. The adjacent island of *Van Diemen's Land* or *Tasmania*, with its capital Hobart Town, forms another colony, and is a better watered country than Australia. *New Zealand*, composed of three contiguous islands, is the seat of a thriving colony, though within the last few years a desolating war, chiefly in the province of Taranaki or New Plymouth, in North Island, has prevailed between the natives and the British settlers. Two centuries have passed since these islands were first discovered by the Dutch; but little was known of the natives till the voyages of Captain Cook. They were fierce, warlike, cannibal tribes, whom Europeans cared not to meddle with. Irregular settlements had been made on various parts of the coast; and to put an end to the anarchy and bloodshed consequent upon this state of things, New Zealand was, in 1840, constituted a colony. Its capital is Wellington.

571. In *South Africa*, Britain possesses the two colonies

of the *Cape of Good Hope* and *Natal*, the former of which was taken from the Dutch in 1806, and Natal was made a separate colony in 1847. Repeated wars with the Caffres on the frontiers have somewhat obstructed the prosperity of these settlements. The staple product is wool. Great Britain has also on the coast of West Africa the possessions of the *Gold Coast*, with its capital Cape Coast Castle, *Sierra Leone*, and *Gambia*; and among the British possessions connected with Africa, are included the island of *Mauritius*, producing nearly a million hundredweights of sugar annually; and the rocky islets of *St Helena* and *Ascension*, used chiefly as victualling stations.

572. *Minor Colonies*.—Other less extensive colonies and dependencies of Great Britain are the isles of *Malta* and *Gozzo*, and the town and fortress of *Gibraltar*, in the Mediterranean; the islet of *Heligoland*, in the German Ocean; the peninsula of *Aden*, on the south coast of Arabia; the islet of *Hong-Kong*, at the mouth of the Canton River, in China; *Labuan*, off the coast of Borneo; and the *Falkland Islands*, in the South Atlantic.

573. *Colonial Government and Laws*.—The laws and judicial usages of England are extended to the chief colonial possessions, along with all the rights and privileges which are common to British subjects. Hence the inhabitants of the most distant part of the empire, whatever be their origin, rank, or colour, are entitled by the constitution to enjoy the same degree of civil and religious liberty, and the same careful protection of life and property, as their fellow subjects in the mother-country. This is an invaluable boon, for in no nation do the people practically enjoy greater rational liberty of speech or action, and in none is the press more free. In India, the natives are subject to their own laws, and in this privilege they are carefully protected by the British authorities. Uninterrupted, likewise, in the exercise of their own peculiar religious usages, sheltered from the oppression of native chiefs, and instructed at schools which have been recently planted amongst them, the inhabitants of India are really more happy and prosperous under a foreign rule than they were under the dominion of the former sovereigns of the country.

574. *Colonial Religion.*—According to the constitution, wherever Britain establishes her civil authority, there also is established the Protestant Episcopal form of church-government and worship, except in cases where provision to the contrary has been made by terms of capitulation. Practically, however, there is perfect freedom in the exercise of religious belief and worship in all parts of the empire. In Lower Canada and Malta, Roman Catholicism; in Hindustan, Brahminism and Mohammedanism; and in Ceylon, the religion of Buddha, prevail. The Protestant Presbyterian form of church-government and worship, similar to that of Scotland, predominates in the Cape of Good Hope, according to agreement with the former Dutch occupants. In all the colonial possessions, much is done by means of missionaries, to introduce a knowledge of Christianity among the natives.

575. *Diffusion of the English Language.*—The English language now predominates over the whole United Kingdom, with the exception of a portion of the Highlands of Scotland, part of Ireland, part of the Isle of Man, and Wales; but in all these places it is gradually superseding the native Celtic dialects. It has been extended, by means of numerous dependencies abroad, over nearly the whole of North America and the West India Islands; also the Australian continent and islands, the Cape of Good Hope, part of Hindustan and Ceylon, and various other places, including several islands in the Pacific. This diffusion of the English tongue, and with it the Christian religion, as well as English literature and habits of thought, over so large a portion of the earth's surface, is perhaps the most extraordinary fact connected with the history of modern civilisation.

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"	"	St Alban's	Lancastrians.
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1811. Albuera.
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Table I. *Connection of the SAXON AND NORMAN LINES, and of the NORMAN AND PLANTAGENET LINES.*

(Illustrating paragraphs 23, 31, 33, 34.)

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Norman Line.

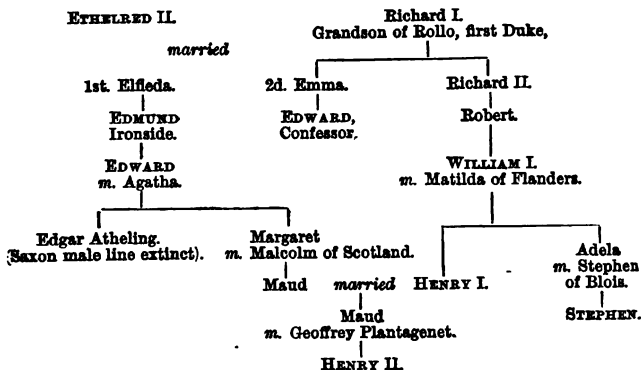


Table II. *Shewing the claims of JOHN BALIOL, ROBERT BRUCE, AND HASTINGS, to the Crown of Scotland.*

(Illustrating paragraph 48.)

David, Earl of Huntingdon,
younger brother of WILLIAM THE LION.

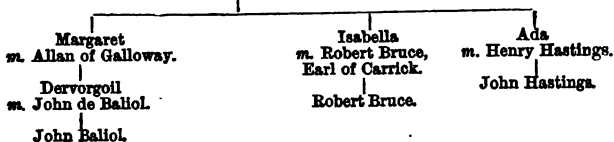


Table III. *Shewing the descent from PHILIP III., on which EDWARD III. founded his claim to the Crown of France.*
(Illustrating paragraph 58.)

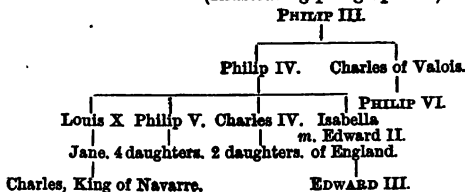


Table IV. *Connection of the PLANTAGHETS PROPER with the HOUSES OF YORK AND LANCASTER.*

(Illustrating paragraphs 71, 77-82, 86-93.)

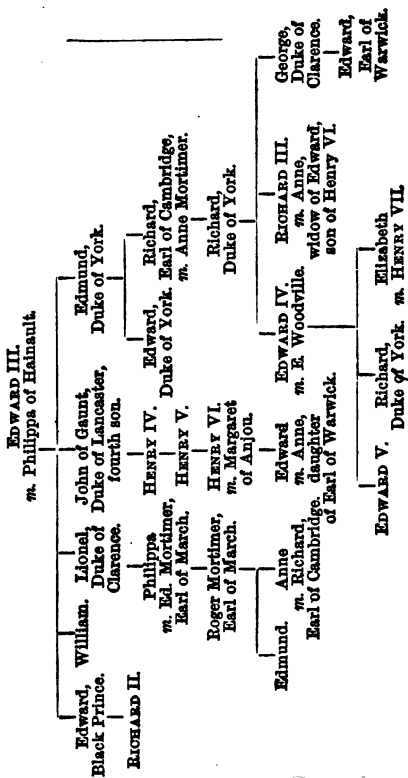


Table V. *Shewing the descent of HENRY VII., and the connection of the PLANTAGENETS with the TUDOR LINE.*
(Illustrating paragraphs 89, 90.)

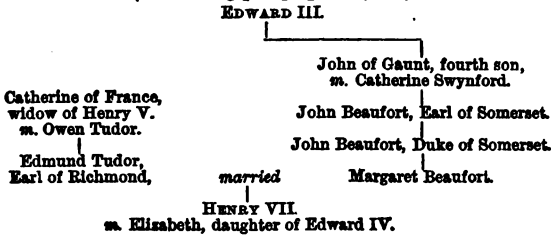


Table VI. *Connection of the Tudors with the Stuarts.*

(Illustrating pages 58-69.)

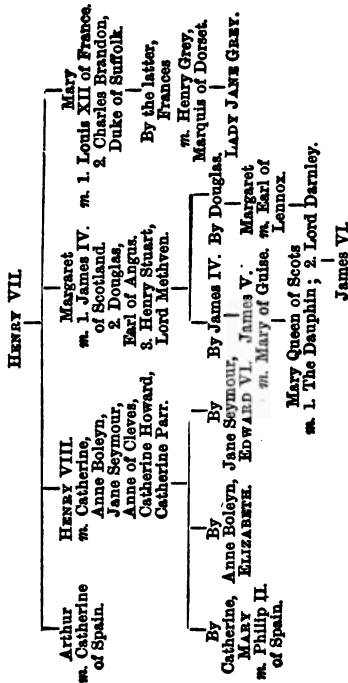


Table VII. *Connection of the STUARTS with WILLIAM OF ORANGE and with the BRUNSWICK LINE.*
 (Illustrating paragraphs 153, 164, 237, 259, 264, 277, 290.)

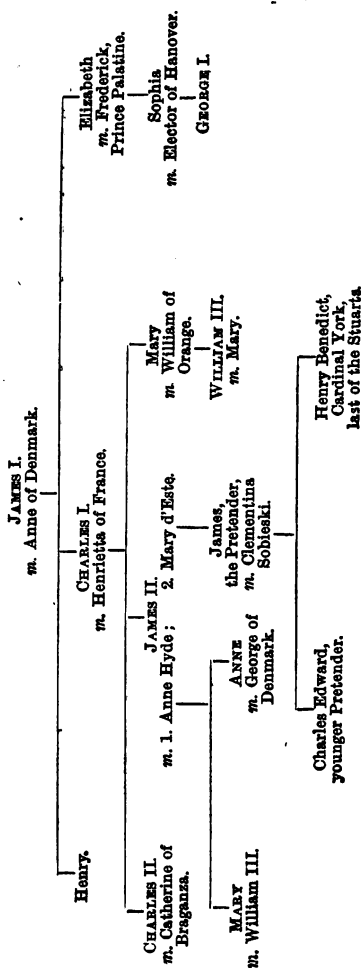
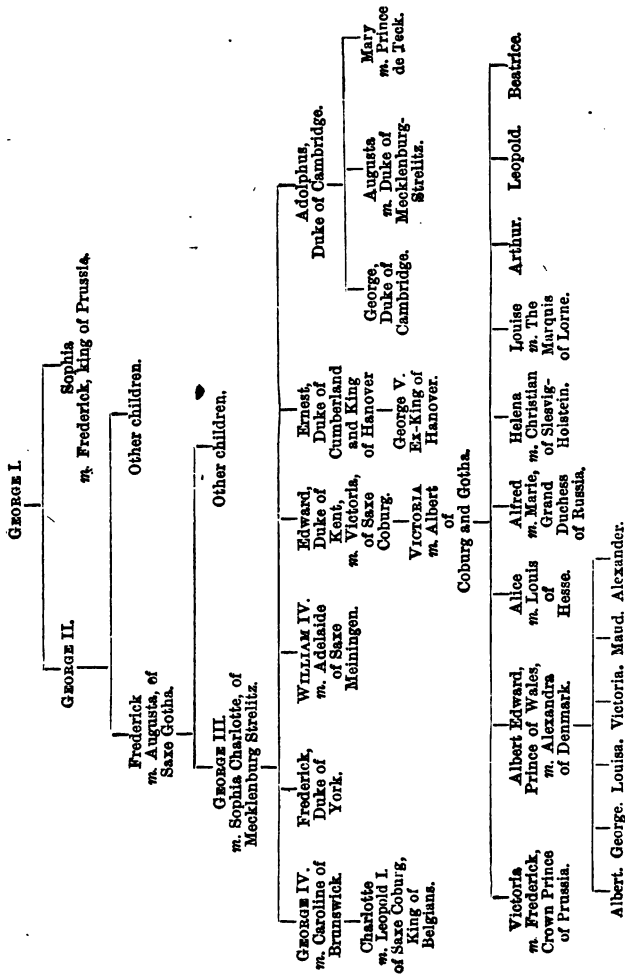


Table VIII. *Genealogy of the Brunswick Line.*



QUESTIONS.

1. Describe the people who inhabited the British Isles previous to the Christian era.—When and under whom did the Romans first invade Britain?—When did they undertake their second invasion?—What was the condition of the natives?
 2. What time elapsed between the second and third invasions?—During what emperor's reign was the third invasion made, and at what date?—Name the British chief who opposed them on this occasion.—What was his fate?—What means did Suetonius take to reduce the Britons?—Who headed the revolt against him?
 3. What Roman commander completed the conquest of the greater part of Britain?—What policy did he adopt?—How far north did he carry his arms, and how did he secure his conquests?—Give an account of the battle fought by him beyond the Forth.
 4. Why was Agricola anxious to conquer Ireland?
 5. Give an account of the Roman walls, and the object of their construction.—What is the most northerly point in Britain which the Romans are believed to have reached?—How did the Romans shew their desire to preserve their conquests?
 6. Name and describe the Roman divisions of Britain.
 7. How was Britain governed under the Romans?—In what way were Severus, Constantine the Great, and Magnentius connected with Britain?—What traces remain of the Roman occupation, and in what respects was the country benefited by it?—State what you know of the history of Christianity in Roman Britain.—Who is said to have been the first British martyr?
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8. When were the Roman troops withdrawn from Britain, and for what reason?—What was the state of the country after the departure of the Roman troops?
 9. Why, and by whom, were foreign tribes invited to Britain?—Name the different tribes, the countries they came from, their leaders, and the places where they settled.

10. Give the names of the kingdoms established by these tribes.—What was the character of the invaders?—What is the origin of the name 'England?'
11. Give an account of the divisions of Britain, and the tribes inhabiting it during the seventh century.—What is meant by the Heptarchy?
12. What was the state of Christianity in England during the sixth century?—When and by whom was it introduced into Ireland, and into Scotland?—Who was Columba, and what was his mission?
13. What is the date of the regular introduction of Christianity into England?—Give an account of its introduction, and its results.
14. When and under whom did Saxon England become one kingdom?—Who was Alfred, and when did he begin to reign?
15. Give an account of the ravages of the Danes at this period.—What is the White Horse of Berkshire?—Relate the traditions respecting Alfred during the Danish possession.—Give an account of the character and habits of Alfred.—When did he die, and what was the length of his reign?
16. Who succeeded Alfred, and what did he accomplish during his reign?—Give an account of the next king, and of what he did for the country.—Give an account of the battle of Brunanburgh.
17. What people began again to make invasions into England?—What was the name of their king who succeeded in gaining the throne?—What was the character of his reign?—Relate the tradition respecting him and his courtiers.—When did he die?—Who was the last Danish king of England, and how long did he reign?
18. Compare the early condition of Ireland with that of Britain.—What people invaded Ireland about the end of the eighth century?—Who opposed their settling?—By what name were these invaders called?
19. Who accomplished the union of the Scottish and Pictish kingdoms, and how?—How far did Malcolm II. extend his sway, and when?—What kingdoms were thus constituted?
20. How were kings appointed among the Anglo-Saxons?—Describe the different orders of rank among the Saxons.—What was the condition of the conquered natives?—Give an account of the great council of the Anglo-Saxons.
21. How was the country divided and subdivided?—In what manner were the members of a tithing responsible for each other's conduct?—How was crime punished?—How was justice administered?—What means were taken by an accused person to give proof of his innocence?—What proceeding among the Saxons resembled *trial by jury*?
22. Give some account of the spread of Christianity under the Saxons.—Give an account of the life of Dunstan, and relate the strange story regarding him.
23. Give an account of the conquest of Normandy, and of the descent and character of Norman William.

24. When, in whose person, and by whose influence, was the Saxon line restored?—What name did the king acquire, and why?—What practice originated with him?—Whom did he marry?—Where had the king been educated?—How was the greater part of his reign spent?—When did he die, and by whom was he succeeded?—Who was the real heir to the throne?

25. On what grounds did William, Duke of Normandy, claim the throne of England?—How did he proceed to assert his claim?—How was Harold engaged when William landed, and what steps did he take?—Describe the battle which followed, giving its date.

26. What was William's policy after his coronation, and what was its effect upon the Saxon language and customs?

27. Mention the leading peculiarities of the Feudal System introduced by William.

28. What surname was given to William, and why?—How was he chiefly engaged during his reign?—Give an account of his death, burial, and character.

29. Who was the second Norman king of England?—What surname was given to him, and why?—Who ought to have succeeded the Conqueror?—When and how did William II. meet his death?—What is meant by a Crusade?—Who, during this reign, took an active part in the Crusades?—Who succeeded William II.?—What was his surname, and why?—Why did not Robert of Normandy succeed William II.?—What was the character of Henry I.?

30. Give an account of the usurpation and reign of Macbeth of Scotland.

31. Who succeeded Macbeth?—Explain his surname.—Whom did he marry, and how was Scotland benefited by the union?

32. What happened on the death of Malcolm?—What was the character of the new king?—For what is he especially remembered?

33. When did Henry I. of England die?—Who was the nearest heir to the throne, and why?—Who succeeded Henry, and what was his claim to the throne?—What was the character of his reign?

34. Who was Henry II., and when did he begin to reign?—Of what line of kings was he the first?—What was his character?—What was the state of Christianity during this reign?—What were the Constitutions of Clarendon, and when were they passed?—Give some account of Thomas à Becket.

35. Relate the legend of Fair Rosamond.—Give an example of Henry's wit.

36. In what country had Henry large possessions?—From what king did he exact homage?—What country did he add to his dominions?—When did William the Lion reign?—Why was he so called?
37. Describe the state of Ireland in the eleventh and twelfth centuries.—How was the country divided and ruled?
38. What circumstance led to the interference of Henry II.?—How do we learn that he had previously formed a design of invading Ireland?—What assistance did he give the Irish chief?—Who were the barons who went over to Dermot's aid?—Give some account of their expedition.
39. In what year, and with what forces, did Henry himself land in Ireland?—What was the result of his invasion?—What was the district where the English resided called?—Account for the miserable condition of Ireland after its conquest by the English.
40. What disturbed the latter years of Henry's life?—When did he die, and by whom was he succeeded?—What was his successor's surname, and why was he so called?—What act of cruelty marked the commencement of his reign?—Give some account of the Crusade in which he was engaged, and his return.—With whom did he afterwards carry on war?—Give an account of his death.—How long did he reign, and how much of the time had he spent in England?
41. Who succeeded Richard I., and when?—What was his relation to Richard?—Who had a better claim to the crown?—What was John's character?—What act of cruelty did he commit?—What was the result of his tyranny?—Give the date of the signing of Magna Charta.
42. What was the power of the kings previous to the Magna Charta?—Give some account of their manner of government.—What was *Escuage*?—Who were compelled to pay tallage?—What other means did the kings take to raise money?
43. What were the leading provisions of Magna Charta?—Name the most important.—What two important principles did it establish?
44. What is meant by *villeinage*, and how was it affected by the Charter?—Give different opinions concerning the Magna Charta.—Which of our still existing institutions have their origin in the Great Charter?
45. When did John die, and who succeeded him?—What was his character?—What important institution had its origin in this reign?—Who composed the great council under the feudal system?—Give some account of the origin of parliament, especially as regards choosing representatives.
46. How did Henry give offence to his barons?—Who headed the revolt?—What important change in the representation of the country did Leicester make in his second parliament?—Give the date and place of Leicester's death.—What epithet has been applied to him?
47. When did Henry III. die, and by whom was he succeeded?—What

- was the character of the new king?—What country did he add to the English crown, and when?—What was the name of the Welsh prince who opposed Edward?—Where was he defeated?—With what act of cruelty is Edward charged?—For what reason is he said to have committed it?
48. Give some account of the state of affairs in Scotland which led to the interference of Edward I.—Who were the principal competitors for the Scottish crown?—In whose favour did Edward decide?—What caused him to invade Scotland?—What battle did he fight, and when, and what was its result?—On his return to England, what did Edward carry away with him, and why?
49. What led the Scots again to take up arms?—Who was their leader, and what was his character?
50. Give an account of the battle of Stirling, and its results.—What title did Wallace acquire?—To what did he now turn his attention?—In what battle were the English victorious?—Give the date.—How did Wallace fall into the hands of the English, and what was his fate?
51. In what war did Edward I. engage after the death of Wallace?—Who next became leader of the Scots?—From whom was he descended?—Whom did he murder?—Where and when was he crowned?—In what enterprise was Edward engaged when he died?—Where did he die, and what was his last injunction?—Was it carried out?—Who succeeded Edward, and when?
52. With what army did Edward II. invade Scotland?—Give an account of the battle that was fought between Bruce and Edward, its date, and results.
53. What induced Bruce to send his brother to Ireland?—Give some account of his career in that country.—What was the state of the country at that time?—What edict did Edward III. of England issue, and what was its effect?—When was the first Irish parliament held?
54. Relate what you know of Robin Hood.
55. How was the weakness of Edward II. shewn, and what were its results?—What was the fate of the king?—Who succeeded him, and when?
56. Who governed the country during the young king's minority?—What peace was concluded during the king's minority, and for what is it remarkable?
57. What was the character of Edward III.?—When did Robert Bruce die, and by whom was he succeeded?—How was the new king of Scotland related to Edward III. of England?—Who was Edward Baliol?—Give an account of his attempt to gain the Scottish crown.
58. What was Edward III.'s claim to the crown of France, and what steps did he take to make it good?—Who was the Black Prince, and why was he so called?—Give an account, with date, of the battle of Cressy.—Explain the origin of the mottoes 'Dieu et Mon Droit' and

- 'Ich Dien.'—Give an account of what led to the battle of Nevil's Cross, with its date and results.
59. When was Calais taken by the English?—Relate the incident which followed its capture, and tell how long it remained in possession of the English.
60. In what battle did the Black Prince particularly distinguish himself, when did it take place, and what were its results?—Describe the subsequent operations of Edward in France and Scotland.—How may his wars be characterised?—When was peace made with France?—How did the French king act on regaining his liberty?
61. Give some account of the chivalry of the age, and its effect upon the national character.
62. What was the condition of the clergy at this period?—State what you know of William of Wykeham.—What institutions were founded during Edward's reign?—What do you know of the learning of the time?
63. Who succeeded Edward III., and in what year?—How was he related to Edward III.?—What was his character?—How was the country benefited by the weakness of the sovereign?—Give an account of the Tyler insurrection and its cause.—What do you know of Wickliffe and of the effect of his writings upon the state of religion?
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64. Give an account of Lancaster's rebellion, and its results.—Who now became king, and under what title?—Who had a better claim to the crown?—What was his first act?—What was the fate of Richard II.?
65. Who succeeded David II. of Scotland, and when?—What relation was he to Robert the Bruce?—What title did he assume, and of what royal line was he the first?—What was his character?—By whom was he succeeded, and when?—What title did the new king assume, and why?—What became of his sons?—Who governed the country after the death of Robert?—What was his son's name?—When and by whom was the first Scottish university founded?
66. In what wars was Henry IV. of England engaged?—Give an account of the principal rebellion against him, and mention the date of the principal battle that was fought.—Give an account of the conduct of the king's son.
67. What favoured the spread of Wickliffe's doctrines?—What enactment connected with the church did Henry sanction?—What were the reformers called, and how were they affected by this enactment?—How is the reality of these persecutions strongly brought before our minds?
68. Who succeeded Henry IV., and in what year?—How did the new king acquire his popularity?—By what was his character sullied?
69. By what right did Henry V. claim the crown of France?—Give an

account, with date, of his campaign in France.—What act of cruelty did Henry perpetrate, and why?—When did Henry die?—How old was his son at the time?

70. Who carried on the war in France during Henry's minority?—In what battle and in what year were the English successful?—Who assisted the French on that occasion?—State what you know of Joan of Arc.—How much French territory remained to the English in 1453?

71. What gave rise to the Wars of the Roses, and why were they so called?—Give an account of the war from 1455 to 1460, and state the result of the last battle.—Who then became the representative of the House of York?—By whose assistance was he enabled to gain the crown?—What became of Henry?

72. What change was made in electing members for parliament during the reign of Henry VI., and for what reasons?

73. What was the feeling among the peers with regard to the duty of attending parliament?—What privileges did the Commons secure?

74. Who was James I. of Scotland, and when did he begin to reign?—Whom did he marry?—How long was he in captivity, and what benefits did he derive from it?—What change did he attempt to make in the Scottish Parliament?—Give an account of the conspiracy against his life, and its cause.

75. Who succeeded James I., and when?—How was his reign chiefly spent?—What was the fate of the Earl of Douglas?—What caused the king's death?—Give date.

76. Who was the next king of Scotland, and what was his character?—Give an account of the revolt against him, and its cause.—In what battle was the king defeated?—Relate the manner of his death.

77. In what year did Edward IV. begin his reign?—What was his character?—How was he disposed towards the Lancastrians, and for what reason?

78. Who befriended Henry VI.?—Give an account of Queen Margaret's efforts for her husband's restoration, the battles she fought, and their results.—What became of the queen, and of Henry?

79. Whom did Edward marry?—What were the consequences of this marriage upon the Earl of Warwick?

80. Give the date of Henry's restoration.—Who was the 'King-maker,' and how did he acquire the name?

81. When did Edward return, and by whom was he assisted?—Who opposed him, and what was the result of the battle which followed?—Give an account of the last battle fought in the Wars of the Roses.—What was the fate of Henry and his family?

82. Describe the principal political event of Edward IV.'s reign.

83. What was the private character of the king?—State what you know of Jane Shore.
 84. Give an account of the ravages of the plague during this reign.—When did it cease to visit England?
 85. State what you know of the introduction of printing into England, Scotland, and Ireland.
 86. Who succeeded Edward IV., and when?—Under whose guardianship was he left?—Who became Protector?—What means did he take to obtain the crown?—When, and under what title, did he ascend the throne?
 87. What was the personal appearance and character of Richard?—Relate the circumstances connected with the death of the young princes.
 88. Give an account of Buckingham's rebellion.—Who was Richard's queen, and what was her fate?—Whom did the king wish to marry?
 89. Who now aspired to the crown, and what were his claims?—Give an account of his landing, the battle which followed, and its results.—When and under what title was Richmond proclaimed king?
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90. How was the crown settled?—What further means did Henry take to strengthen his title?—What two houses were united by his marriage?
91. What change took place in the condition of the country under Henry VII.?—What effect had the long civil war had upon the country?—What distinguished the government of England from that of other countries?—What good resulted from the repeated changes in the government of the country?
92. What was the cause of the many revolts during Henry's reign?—Who was the first pretender to the crown, whom did he personate, and what was his fate?—Who was the next impostor, and whom did he pretend to be?—Give an account of his proceedings and fate.
93. What other personages did Henry put to death, and why?
94. What was Henry's character as a ruler?—Give examples of his sagacity.—What was Henry's policy in the government of the country?—What was the greatest fault of his character?—Give an example of his extortion.—What sum of money did he accumulate?
95. What important maritime enterprises at home and abroad were carried out during the reign of Henry VII.?
96. Which faction did the Anglo-Irish support in the Wars of the Roses?—What pretender, during Henry's reign, received assistance from the Irish chiefs?—Give an account of the Statute of Drogheda, its object, leading enactments, and results.—By what other name is it known, and why was it so called?

97. In what year and at what age did Henry VII. die?—What was his last act, and what injunction did he leave his son?

98. At what age did Henry VIII. ascend the throne?—In what characteristic did he greatly differ from his father?—What league did he join, and what is remarkable about this step?
99. How was the king of Scotland related to Henry?—What circumstances led to the battle of Flodden?—Give an account of the battle, with its date and result.—When did Henry make peace with France?
100. Who was Wolsey?—What means did he take to raise money for the king, and what was the result?—What was the effect upon the people?—How did he attempt to propitiate the king?
101. Relate some of the circumstances that led to the Reformation.—Who may be considered the first reformer in England, and in what reign?
102. Who was the great leader of the Reformation in Germany?—Give an account of his conversion and doctrines.—What parts of Europe were first affected by his doctrines?
103. What attitude did Henry at first assume with regard to the Reformation, and how was it received by the pope?—Who was Henry's queen?—What led him to seek for a divorce, and on what ground did he claim it?—What constituted the pope's difficulty in granting Henry's request?
104. In what position did Wolsey find himself at this juncture?—What was the result of his conduct in this affair?—Give an account of his death.—What course did Henry take to nullify his marriage with Catherine, and what advantage did the country derive from it?—When was he married to Anne Boleyn?
105. Who was Henry's next wife, and when did he marry her?—What became of Anne Boleyn?—What children had Henry by his wives respectively?—What parliamentary act was passed regarding his daughters?
106. What changes did Henry now make in the religion of the country?—What facilitated the carrying out of his measures?—What did he do with the monasteries and their revenues?—By what act was the Reformation completed, and when?—In what parts of England were the reformed doctrines most prevalent?—What parts still remained Roman Catholic?
107. Give an account of the insurrection of the Geraldines in Ireland.
108. How did the Irish look upon Henry's claim to Ireland?—What steps were taken to further the Reformation in Ireland, and what was the result?—What title did Henry assume with regard to Ireland?
109. What was the fate of Jane Seymour?—Give an account of Henry's

subsequent marriages.—Name those of Henry's friends or servants who were destroyed by him.

110. Who succeeded James IV. on the throne of Scotland?—What led to a war between him and Henry VIII.?—What union did Henry propose, and why?—How was it received, and what was the result?—Who governed Scotland after the death of James V.?—What was the character and policy of the governor?

111. When did Henry VIII. die?—How long had he reigned?—Who succeeded him?—What will did Henry make regarding the succession?—Who were overlooked by this settlement, and for what reason?

112. How was learning advanced in this reign?—What vegetables were cultivated in England for the first time?

113. Who was the mother of Edward VI.?—During his minority, who took the direction of affairs, and under what title?—How was the church affected during this reign?—What led to an invasion of Scotland?—What battle was fought, when, and with what result?—What was the fate of Cardinal Beaton?—Where was the young queen of Scotland sent, and why?

114. What was the character of Somerset's government, and what was his fate?—Who succeeded him as Protector?—To what religion was he attached?—Characterise Edward's reign.—When did he die, and at what age?

115. To whom did the crown belong by birthright?—To whom by the settlement of Henry VIII.?—What was the character of Lady Jane Grey?—To whom was she married, and for what reason?—When was she proclaimed queen?—How was Mary's claim supported?—How long did Lady Jane Grey reign?

116. What was Mary's age when she ascended the throne?—What was her character?—What was the fate of the Duke of Northumberland, and of Lady Jane, and her friends?—Give an account of Lady Jane Grey's execution.

117. How did Mary act with regard to the religion of the country?—Whom did she marry, and when?—How did the English look upon this alliance?—What became of Philip?

118. What was Mary's great object with regard to religion?—How did she proceed to carry it out?—Who were the most eminent of her victims?—What effect had these persecutions upon the people generally?—In what war did she engage at the close of her reign, and what was its result?—Give the date of Mary's death.

119. Who succeeded Mary?—Whose daughter was she?—In what condition had she lived during her sister's reign?—Who opposed her

accession?—Whom did they consider as having the best right to the throne?—What induced Elizabeth to restore the Protestant religion?—How was it established in Scotland?—Who were the chief leaders in this reformation?

120. What event aided the establishment of the reformed religion in Scotland?—To whom was the Queen of Scots married?—In what state did she find Scotland on her return?

121. Compare the rise of the Reformation in Scotland with that in England.—What system did the Scottish Reformers imitate?—What were the leading features of this system?—What advantage did the country derive from the establishment of parish schools?

122. Who took the direction of affairs in Scotland?—How did Mary endeavour to suppress Protestantism?—What crown did she still lay claim to, and how did she hope to attain it?

123. Who was Mary's second husband, and how was he related to the royal family?—What effect had this alliance upon the nobles?—Who was Rizzio?

124. What led to the murder of Rizzio?—Give an account of his assassination.—How did Darnley afterwards act?

125. When was Mary's son born, and what was his name?—How was Mary advised to act with regard to her husband?—What was Darnley's fate?—Who was accused of complicity in the crime?—Whom did Mary then marry?

126. What led to the murder of Darnley?—What made Mary unpopular among her subjects, and what was the result of her unpopularity?—Where did she meet with the insurgents, and on what condition did she surrender?—What became of Bothwell?

127. Where was Mary imprisoned?—What was she there compelled to do?—Who was appointed regent?

128. When did Mary escape?—Describe what followed.—What became of Mary?—How did Elizabeth act with regard to Scotland?

129. How did the people acquire so many privileges under the Plantagenets?—What change took place under the Tudors?—What new idea regarding the right to the crown did Elizabeth take advantage of?—Of whom did her government consist?—What was the character of her ministers?

130. What two acts were passed on the accession of Elizabeth?—State their purpose and chief terms, and how they were enforced.—How many persons suffered death by these laws during Elizabeth's reign?

131. By what was the political condition of Europe most affected for some time after the Reformation?—What was the state of European society during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries?—How was Protestantism looked upon by some?—What was the cause of the many cruelties inflicted by the adherents of the different religions upon one another?

132. What led to the war in the Netherlands?—To whom did that country belong?—How long did the war last?—How did Elizabeth act?—Give an account of the massacre of St Bartholomew, its date, and cause.—How were the people of the Netherlands at last enabled to assert their independence, and what kingdom did they form?
133. What made Elizabeth so severe in her treatment of the Catholics?—For whose liberation were the Catholics constantly plotting?—What law was made at this time, and what was it designed to effect?—Give an account of Babington's conspiracy.—In how far was the Queen of Scots cognizant of and responsible for the conspiracy?
134. Give an account of the trial of Queen Mary.—What feelings actuated Elizabeth in her conduct towards Mary?
135. What at length induced Elizabeth to issue a warrant for Mary's execution?—Relate the circumstances connected with its issue.
136. Give an account, with date, of Mary's execution.
137. Who was now at the head of affairs in Scotland?—What was the position of the clergy?—What change did the king attempt to bring about, and how did he succeed?
138. For what event is the year 1588 famous?—Who prepared this expedition, what was its object, and by whom was he assisted?
139. Of what did the fleet and army consist, and who were the respective commanders?
140. What effect had the news of the invasion upon the English?—What was the strength of the English fleet?—In what had the English the advantage of the Spaniards?—Who commanded the English navy, and what famous seamen served under him?—What position did Lord Seymour take up?
141. What circumstances attended the sailing of the Armada?—On what information did the Spanish admiral act?—What was the result of the first engagement between the two fleets?
142. Where was the next attack made upon the Spanish fleet?—What means were employed to throw the Spaniards into disorder, and what was the result?—What did the Spanish admiral then resolve to do?—Give an account of the return to Spain.
143. What were the feelings of the Irish regarding the religious changes brought about by Henry VIII., by Edward VI., and by Mary?
144. How did Elizabeth act with regard to Ireland?—What measures did Perrot propose for the good of Ireland?—On what grounds were they opposed by the English statesmen?—What did their opposition lead to?
145. What was the character of the Earl of Tyrone?—Give an account of his proceedings.—When did the insurrection break out?
146. Which party was at first successful?—From whom did Tyrone ask assistance?—Who was sent over to take the command in Ireland; with what result?—What did Tyrone accomplish the next year?

147. Whom did Elizabeth next send to take the command in Ireland?—Give an account of his proceedings.—When did Tyrone submit?—What were the consequences of not adopting Sir John Perrot's measures?
 148. What was Elizabeth's character in the latter years of her life?—Who was her favourite in middle life?—What was the character of Essex?—How did Elizabeth conduct herself towards him, and what was his fate?
 149. How is it alleged that the life of Essex might have been spared, and how was it prevented?—What effect had the death of Essex upon the queen?—How did she act towards the Countess of Nottingham?
 150. Give an account of the last two years of Elizabeth's life.—When did she die, and how long had she reigned?—What advance had England made as a political power, and in what condition was Protestantism at the close of her reign?
 151. What induced England to give so much attention to naval affairs during Elizabeth's reign?—Name the most famous navigators.—What commercial enterprises were entered into?—How did the English revenge themselves upon the Spaniards?
 152. What were the principal exports?—Name the chief manufactures, with their centres.—How was England benefited by the persecutions in the Netherlands?—Give a short account of the social life of the English during Elizabeth's reign.
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153. Who succeeded Elizabeth, by what right, and under what title?—Who was his queen, and what family had he?—What name was given to the two countries thus united?
 154. Describe the king's personal appearance, character, and notions.—Compare his rule with that of Elizabeth.
 155. Who were the Puritans?—What were James's difficulties with them?—What were his difficulties with the Catholics?
 156. What was the result of the king's conference with the Puritans?
 157. What led to the Gunpowder Plot?—Give an account of it, and of the fate of the conspirators.
 158. Give an account of the government of Ireland previous to the reign of James.—How was the authority of the English laws limited?—What power did the nobles exercise over their districts; what were their districts called?—Name the principal families who thus held sway in Ireland.
 159. What king previous to James wished to extend the English laws over Ireland, and how was he prevented?—What enabled James to place Ireland under the authority of these laws?—What acts did he pass; and what commission did he grant?

160. How were the hopes of the Catholics raised during this reign?—What proclamation did the king make regarding the priests, and what led to it?—What important change was made with regard to the Irish Church at this time?
161. How was Tyrone's conspiracy discovered?—What became of the conspirators?—What new division did the king make of certain lands in Ireland?—What evils arose from the establishing of Plantations?—What distinguished the Irish Parliament of 1613 from previous parliaments?
162. What loss did James sustain in 1612?—Who then became heir-apparent to the crown?
163. What matrimonial alliance did the king propose for his son?—How was the proposed union looked upon by the people, and how by the king?—Give an account of Charles's visit to Spain.—What led to the breaking off of the match, and what were the consequences?
164. What was the name of the king's daughter?—Whom did she marry, and when?—What makes this marriage of great importance in the history of the country?
165. What was the character of James's reign?—Who was his chief adviser in the early years of his reign?—Who were his principal favourites, and what power did they exercise at court?
166. What were the feelings existing between the king and the House of Commons?—What grievances did they complain of?—Who resisted the king in his attempt to impose duties on certain imports, and what was the result of the trial?
167. How did the king act towards his parliament?—What was their answer?—What was the nature of Dr Cowell's book, and what became of it?—What was the conduct of the later parliaments, and how did the king act?
168. When did King James die?—How long had he reigned over England and Ireland, and how long over Scotland?
169. What was the state of English literature during this reign?—What great names are connected with the literature of the period?
170. Why was the king so liberal in conferring titles of nobility?—What change took place in house-building material during this reign?
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171. In what year, and at what age, did Charles I. ascend the throne?—Whom did he marry, and what was the consequence of this union?
172. In what war was the country now engaged?—How did parliament comply with the king's demands?—How long did this first parliament sit?—From what did the opposing spirit of the Commons arise?
173. Whom did the Commons impeach in the next parliament?—What members were thrown into the Tower, and for what reason?—What

effect had this upon the people?—What methods did the king employ to raise money?

174. What led to a war with France?—What was the result of the expedition of 1627?—What famous Petition did the third parliament present to the king, and when?—What were the privileges it conferred on the people?—How did the king act with regard to the Petition?—What grant was made to him by parliament?—What was the fate of the Duke of Buckingham?—Who then took command of the expedition, and with what result?

175. What differences led to quarrels between the king and the Commons?—What mistaken idea had Charles regarding the kingly office?—Give an example of his overbearing disposition.—What was the character of those opposed to him in parliament?—What doctrines were making great progress in the Church of England at this time?—What characterized the party holding these doctrines?

176. What did the king do in order to lessen his expenses?—Who was the Earl of Strafford?—What was the policy of Archbishop Laud?—By what means did the king raise money?—By what court were those who refused to submit to this taxation tried?—What kind of cases were tried by the Court of High Commission?—State what you know of Leighton and Prynne.—What effect had the arbitrary government of the king upon the Puritans?

177. Who first resisted the arbitrary measures of the king on legal grounds?—What was the decision of the court, and why?—What effect had the discussion upon the minds of the people?

178. How far did Charles succeed in introducing the Episcopal form of worship into Scotland?—How did the people meet the attempt to introduce the Book of Common Prayer?—How did the king act under the circumstances?—What steps were taken by the Scotch?—When was the National Covenant signed?—What was the result of the Marquis of Hamilton's negotiations?

179. When and where did the General Assembly meet?—What were its proceedings?—How did the king then attempt to establish his authority, and how was he met?—What was the result of the negotiations between the two parties?

180. What line of policy did the king next adopt, and with what success?—How did Montrose act?

181. What were the proceedings of the General Assembly and parliament of 1640?—What did the king require to do in order to raise money?—How long had he reigned without a parliament?—How did parliament comply with his request?—How did he obtain supplies?

182. How did the Scots act?—Against whom had they special enmity?—What was the result of their expedition into England?

183. In what year did the Long Parliament meet?—What was the chief object of its measures?—What were its first acts?

184. How did the English Parliament act with regard to Scottish affairs ?
—Give an account of the king's proceedings in Scotland.
185. With what party did the king at the same time keep up communication ?—Who was its leader ?—Give an account of the conspiracy formed by Montrose.
186. What cause of complaint had the Irish against the English administration ?—On what terms did Charles agree to render the land-owners' titles valid, and how did he fulfil his agreement ?
187. State another cause of complaint.—What progress had the reformed religion made in Ireland ?—How were the Catholics excluded from holding public offices ?—What effect had the measures against Catholicism upon the Irish ?
188. When was Strafford appointed viceroy of Ireland, and what was the character of his administration ?—What encouraged the Irish to rise against the English ?—Who was leader of the conspiracy ?
189. How was the attempt to capture Dublin Castle frustrated ?
190. Who was the leader of the insurrection in the north, and what was his design ?—What led to the massacre of the Protestants ?—How did the government act ?—What was the attitude of the British patriots with regard to the Irish question ?—How did the Scots act ?
191. What had parliament accomplished in the first year of its session ?
—What was the character of the king regarding his engagements, and what did it lead to ?—What was the 'Remonstrance ?'
192. What imprudent step did the king take in the early part of 1642 ?
—What occasioned the actual breaking out of the Civil War ?
193. Upon what classes of the people did the parliament and the king respectively depend ?—By what names were the two parties known, and for what reasons ?
194. Where and when did the king erect his standard ?—Compare the two armies.—Who commanded the respective forces ?
195. Where and when did the first battle take place, and what was the result ?—Where were negotiations opened, and what was their issue ?
196. Describe the campaign of 1643.
197. How did the respective armies conduct themselves in the field ?—Who improved the condition of the Parliamentary army ?—What was his character ?
198. What was the Solemn League and Covenant, and when was it entered into ?—What was the first battle of 1644, and its result ?—What did the Scotch hope to accomplish in thus assisting the Parliamentarians ?—For what purpose did the Assembly of Divines meet at Westminster ?
199. Describe the campaign of 1644 subsequent to the battle of Long Marston.—Where were the negotiations opened, and what was the

- result?—What religious party was now fast rising into importance, and what were their views?—What was the Self-denying Ordinance?
200. Who was the leader of the royalist forces in Scotland?—Give an account of his career in Scotland in 1644, 1645.
202. What change had taken place in the character of the armies during the Civil War?—Who was really commander of the Parliamentarian army?—In what battle was the royalist cause completely overthrown?
203. By whom were the negotiations for a peace again frustrated?—Whither did the king betake himself?
204. What induced the Scots to receive the king?—How might he have gained them over to his side?
205. What induced the Scots to give up the king to the English Parliament?—What can be said in extenuation of this act on the part of the Scots?
206. Where was the king imprisoned?—Why did the parliament wish to disband the army?—What was the result of their attempt to do so?—Who was appointed to the chief command?—What were his proceedings?
207. What caused the leaders of the army to break off their negotiations with the king?—Where did he escape to?—With whom did the king then enter into negotiations, and with what result?
208. What agreement was entered into between the king and the Scottish Presbyterians?—Who protested against the Duke of Hamilton's expedition, and why?—Where was the Scottish army defeated?
209. How were the Presbyterians of the House of Commons prevented from concluding their negotiations in favour of the king?—By what name is this transaction known?—What did the Independents now resolve upon?—Give an account of the king's trial and execution, with date.
210. What were the personal appearance and character of Charles?—What opinion is now generally held concerning his political conduct, and his execution?—What was his worst vice?—Mention the names of his children.
211. Name the chief dramatists and poets who flourished in this reign.—What discovery did Harvey make?—How did the king shew his taste for the fine arts?—What new taxes were imposed?
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212. What form of government was established after the execution of the king?—Give an account of its constitution.—What was the fate of the Duke of Hamilton?
213. What was the condition of Ireland during the Civil War?—What agreement did Charles make with the Earl of Glamorgan?—What was

- the position of parties in Ireland at the time of the king's death?—
Give an account of Cromwell's expedition to Ireland.
214. What effect had the intelligence of the king's death upon the Scots?
—How did Charles act with regard to the Scots?
215. Give an account of Cromwell's expedition into Scotland in 1650.—
On what day did the battle of Dunbar take place?
216. Where was Charles crowned king?—What bond did he subscribe?—
In what great battle were the Scots defeated, and on what day?—What
were the consequences of this defeat?
217. What led to the war with Holland?—Who were the respective com-
manders of the Dutch and English fleets?—Why was parliament
unwilling to come to terms of peace with the Dutch?—How did
Cromwell act towards the parliament?—How long had the Long
Parliament existed, and in what year was it dissolved?
218. Why did Cromwell summon another parliament?—By what name is
it known?—What title was conferred on Cromwell?
219. What was the result of the Dutch war?—What were the conditions
of the treaty of peace?
220. In what other war did the English fleet next distinguish itself?—
Upon what did Cromwell depend for his authority?—Give an account
of his administration.—What was the name and object of the pamphlet
by Colonel Titus?
221. When did Cromwell call his last parliament?—What did he attempt
in summoning this parliament?—How did it act?—When did Cromwell
die?—What made the day of his death remarkable?—Who succeeded
him as Protector?—What was his character?—In whose hands did he
leave the administration?
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222. How was the government conducted after the resignation of Richard
Cromwell?—What made the people anxious for a change of government?
223. Who was chiefly instrumental in bringing about the Restoration?—
On what date did he leave Scotland?—How did he proceed to act on
his arrival in London?
224. Of whom were the members of the new parliament chiefly composed?
—Give an account of their proceedings.—When did Charles II. arrive
in England?—How was he received?
225. What was one of the first acts of the king?—Who were executed in
England and in Scotland?—What was done with the bodies of Cromwell,
Ireton, and Bradshaw?—What church was now re-established in
Britain?—What was the king's opinion of Presbyterianism?—What
opinion did the Scottish Parliament hold concerning the power of the
king?—What change took place in the manners of the people?
226. Who had governed Ireland during the Commonwealth?—What acts

- were passed at the Restoration for the benefit of Ireland?—What raised the hopes of the Catholic party in Ireland, and how were they disappointed?
227. Upon what classes of his subjects could the king most depend?—Give an account of the origin of a standing army in England.
228. What was the character of the king?—What steps did he take to raise money?—Whom did he marry?—With what country did he commence a war, and for what reason?
229. In what battle was the Dutch fleet defeated?—Who commanded the English navy on that occasion?
230. What ultimately gave the Dutch an advantage in the war?—What occurred in 1667?—Why was the war concluded?
231. Give an account of the great calamity in London in 1665.
232. Give an account of the Great Fire in London.
233. What occasioned the insurrection in the south of Scotland in 1666?—What battle was fought, and with what result?
234. What attempt did the king now make with regard to the ejected clergy, and with what results?—What were conventicles, and what means did the king take to suppress them?
235. What was the Triple Alliance, and what led to it?—Who composed the Cabal Ministry, and why was it so called?—What induced Charles to join the French king in a war against the Dutch?
236. Give an account of the Dutch war.
237. What important act did the parliament of 1673 pass, and what was its nature?—How was the Dutch war brought to a close?—Under whose leadership had the Dutch been carrying on the war?—Whom had he married?
238. What was the character of the English court, and how was this of advantage to the country?—In whose hands was the chief political power?—Relate an incident shewing the degraded state of the court.
239. What was the feeling of the country towards the Roman Catholics, and what gave rise to it?—Give an account of the Popish Plot, with date.
240. What disclosures served to increase the hatred against the Catholics?—Who suffered death in consequence of this state of feeling?
241. By what names were the two parties in the House of Commons now designated, and what is the probable origin of the words?
242. What minister was impeached by parliament?—What measures did the next parliament pass?—What is the Habeas Corpus Act, and when was it passed?—How did the House of Lords deal with the Duke of York Succession Bill?—Who was looked upon by some of the people as a preferable heir to the throne?—What word was originated at this time, and what is its derivation?

243. To what extent was the persecution in Scotland carried, and what was its effect upon the people?—Whom did they put to death?—Give a detailed account of the insurrection that followed.
244. Who were the principal leaders of the party who still opposed the measures of the government?—What effect had their proceedings upon the Covenanters generally?
245. Give an account of the Secret Society at Lanark.—What did many of the Covenanters do in order to escape the tyrannise of the government?
246. What led to a change of opinion regarding the succession of the Duke of York?
247. Where and when did the next parliament meet?—What motion was made by one of the ministers, and how was it received?—What effect had their decision upon the position of the king and of the liberal party?
248. What political changes did the king now make?—Who were principally concerned in the insurrection that followed?—Who suffered death for alleged complicity in the Rye-house Plot?—Give the date of the king's death.—Of what religion did he profess himself an adherent?—Who succeeded him?
249. What was Charles's character?—Name the most remarkable of his mistresses.—To what rank were his illegitimate sons raised?
250. What advances did the nation make during his reign?—When was the Royal Society established, and what was its object?—What contributions were made to science, and by whom?—What great names in poetry and in theology are connected with this reign?—What was the character of the theatrical representations?
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251. When did James II. ascend the throne?—In what respects did his character differ from that of Charles?—What religion did he profess, and what was his great wish?
252. What promise did the king make before the Privy Council?—How did parliament meet his demands?—What doctrines were now openly preached?—What acknowledgment did the Scottish Parliament make?
253. Give an account of the Duke of Monmouth's enterprise.—Who was Jefferies, and what was his character?
254. Give an account of the Earl of Argyle's expedition.
255. What design did James now think of carrying out?—What steps did he take, and how were they met?
256. What proclamation did he make for the benefit of the Catholics, and how was it received?—What was the result of the bishops' remonstrance?

257. What were the steps taken by the king for the re-establishment of Roman Catholicism?—What event still more roused the feelings of the people?
258. What effect had these measures upon the Tories, Whigs, and clergy respectively?—Who had the people been looking to as the successor of James, and how was that hope shut out?
259. Whom did the people invite to their aid?—How was he related to James?—How were the preparations conducted?—How did James act on hearing of the intended invasion?
260. What concessions were now made by the king?
261. How were these concessions received?—How were doubts raised as to the king's sincerity?—How was his zeal for his own honour shewn?
262. With what forces did the Prince of Orange sail from Holland?—What words and motto were inscribed on his banner?—Where and when did he land in England?
263. Give an account of the reception in England of the Prince of Orange.—How did the army act?
264. Give the names of those who deserted the king.—What effect upon the king had his daughter's withdrawal?
265. What did the council of peers advise?—Give an account of the king's subsequent proceedings.—When did he leave the country?
266. How was the Prince of Orange received in London?—What steps were proposed by the members of parliament?—What proposition was made by the Tories, and how did William treat it?—What bill was then passed?—What was the Declaration of Rights?
267. How did the Convention in Scotland act?—How was the succession settled in England?
268. By what name is this change in the government known, and what is its date?—What did it decide regarding the regal office?—What benefits resulted from the change?
269. What party in Scotland were opposed to the accession of William and Mary?—Who headed the insurrection in favour of James?—What battle was fought in 1689, and with what result?
270. Account for the strong feeling in Ireland in favour of James.—Who was viceroy, and what was his character?
271. Give an account of James's proceedings in Ireland.—Where did the Protestants take refuge?—Describe the battle of the Boyne, with date.
272. How did James act after this defeat?—Who kept up the war against William?—What was the result of the battle of Aghrim?—What were the terms of the treaty of Limerick?
273. How did the English parliament act with regard to this treaty?—What was the nature of the act they passed?—What act was passed

- by the Irish Parliament?—What appears to have been the motive for the actions of the Protestants at this time?
274. From what source did William experience new difficulties in his administration?—What is meant by Jacobites?—What was the Triennial Act?—When was it passed, and what led to it?—When did the queen die?
275. Relate the circumstances connected with the Massacre of Glencoe?—What can be said in defence of William in connection with it?
276. Give an account of the Darien Expedition.—How did William act regarding it?—What feelings did the king's conduct give rise to among the Scots?
277. By what peace was the French war brought to a close, and when?—When was the Act of Succession passed, and what were its terms?
278. What causes led to a renewal of war?—What treaty did England enter into?—Who succeeded to the Spanish throne?
279. When and where did James II. die?—By what name was his son known in Britain?—How did Louis XIV. violate the treaty of Ryswick?—What was the cause of William's death?—When did it occur?
280. What was the character and personal appearance of William?—What were the greatest stains on his character?
281. For what is the reign of William remarkable?—When were the banks of England and Scotland originated, and by whom?
282. What eminent writers flourished in this reign?
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283. Who succeeded William III., and when?—For what was she principally remarkable?—What was the 'Grand Alliance'?—Who was appointed to the command of the army in Holland?—What victories did he gain?—Who commanded in Spain?
284. How were the Tories thwarted in their attempt to put an end to the war?—Why was Marlborough anxious that the war should continue?—What was the consequence of this war?
285. What led to the passing of the Act of Security, and what was its leading feature?—What other act was passed at the same time?—How did the English ministers act, and what did they accomplish?
286. What were the principal terms of the union between England and Scotland?—Give the date of the union.
287. What political party was in the ascendant in the early part of Queen Anne's reign?—What were the characteristics of the two parties?—What was the bill against Occasional Conformity?—How was it treated in the House of Lords?
288. Who was Sacheverell, and for what offence was he brought to trial?—

What was the consequence of this trial to the Whig party?—What change took place in the ministry in 1710?

289. What was the policy of the Tory cabinet?—By what peace was the war brought to a close, and when?—What were the terms of the treaty?—What did Britain secure by this war?—What acts were passed for the gratification of the High Church party?

290. On whom, by the Act of Settlement, was the crown to devolve at the death of Queen Anne?—What statesmen plotted for the restoration of the Stuarts, and how was their intrigue frustrated?—When did Queen Anne die?—Who succeeded her?

291. How do you characterise this reign as regards its literature?—What eminent writers flourished in this reign?

292. At what age did George I. ascend the throne?—What political party did he favour?—How had the Tories acted on their accession to office in 1710, and how did the Whigs now act in return?

293. How did the Tories disturb the early part of George's reign?—What was the object of the Riot Act?—What led to the civil war of 1715?

294. Who headed the insurrection in Scotland, and by whom was he opposed?—Give an account of the rising in Northumberland?—What battle was fought between the Earl of Mar and the Duke of Argyle, and with what result?

295. How was Mar disappointed in his expected help from France?—Where did the Pretender land?—Give an account of his proceedings.—What punishments were inflicted on those who had taken part in this insurrection?

296. What effect had the suppression of the insurrection upon the position of the government?—What famous act was passed in 1716, and what was the occasion of it?—By what classes was the government chiefly supported, and by whom was it opposed?

297. For what is the year 1718 remarkable?—Give an account of Bishop Hoadly's sermon.—Why was the convocation of the English clergy dissolved?—What power had it formerly exercised?

298. For how many years had Britain been at peace with foreign nations?—What gave rise to the South Sea Scheme, and what was the nature of it?

299. How did the scheme at first succeed?—What statement of the directors made the people anxious to become shareholders?—To what enormous price did the shares in consequence rise?

300. What effect had the failure of the scheme upon the country?—How and by whom was the nation saved?—What revelations were made

respecting the scheme ?—To what offices was Walpole appointed, and how long did he remain in office ?

301. What was the state of the country financially and commercially during the reign of George I. ?—Who were the chief literary men of this reign ?

302. When did George I. die, and by whom was he succeeded ?—What was the character of the new king ?—How were the Tories defeated in their attempt to supplant the Whigs ?—On what ground was a second attempt made ?—What advantageous change regarding imports did Walpole make ?

303. By what means did Walpole retain office so long, and what was the cause of his resigning office ?

304. What occasioned the war with Spain ?—When was it proclaimed ?—Who was averse to the war ?—Who had the command of the fleet sent to Spain ?—What important town did Vernon take ?—What was the result of the attack upon Carthagea ?—Give an account of Anson's expedition.

305. With what country did Britain next engage in war, and what was the cause of it ?—In what year did Walpole resign ?

306. Who were at the head of the new ministry ?—What expectations were formed on the change of ministers, and how were they realised ?—Relate some of the first acts of the new administration.

307. What change took place in the fortunes of the Queen of Hungary about the time she was joined by the British ?—What battle was fought in 1743 ?—What greatly contributed to the success of the British ?—What is remarkable about the battle of Dettingen ?

308. What were the reasons for carrying on the war after the death of Charles VII. ?—Who commanded the French army ; who the British and Hanoverian ?

309. What battle was fought in 1745 ?—Give an account of it.—What was the result of the war ?

310. Who was Prince Charles Stuart ?—What led him to make an invasion of Britain ?—Give an account of his embarkation and landing.

311. Where and when did Prince Charles raise his standard ?—What steps were taken by the government ?—How did Charles succeed ?

312. What were Charles's proceedings in Edinburgh ?—Give a detailed account of the battle of Prestonpans, with date.—What was the immediate result of the battle ?

313. Give an account of Charles's advance from Edinburgh to Derby.

314. What did the prince's officers now resolve upon, and what was the result ?

315. Give a detailed account of the campaign of 1746.
 316. What acts were passed by parliament for the subjugation of the Highland clans?—What benefit did Scotland derive from these enactments?
 317. When and by what treaty was the war with France brought to a close?—Give the terms of the treaty.—What was the effect of the war on the two countries?—Mention a remarkable fact regarding the British army and navy since the time of Marlborough.
 318. Who was now at the head of the ministry?—When had the British first begun to establish colonies?—What other European nations had been successful in planting colonies?—Give an account of the rise of the British colonies in North America and the West Indies.
 319. When was the East India Company originated?—Describe the native inhabitants of Hindustan.—What advance had the East India Company made at the close of William III's reign?—Name the advantages and settlements they acquired during the next thirty years.
 320. What settlements had the French acquired in Hindustan?—What town did they take from the British, and in what year?—When was it restored?—What again led the settlers into war?—Under whose leadership did the British act?—What treaty was concluded between the home governments?
 321. What was the cause of the disputes between the English and French?—What maxim had the French regarding colonial settlements?—What aggressions did they make upon the British possessions?
 322. When was war commenced in North America, and what was at first the result of the contest?—Under whom as Secretary of State were the British more successful?—By whom was Quebec taken, and when?—Give an account of Clive's exploits in Hindustan.
 323. How was Britain again brought into collision with France?—To whom was the command of the British army given, and what was his success?—In what year, and at what age, did George II. die?
 324. What religious sect sprung up during the reign of George II.?—Give an account of their rise.
 325. Give an account of the origin and progress of newspapers up to this reign.—What was the first magazine, and by whom was it published?
 326. Who were the principal writers during this reign?
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327. Whom did George III. marry?—Who was made one of the secretaries of state?—What led to the resignation of Pitt?—Give an account of the war with Spain.—In what year was peace concluded?
 328. What territory did Britain acquire from France, and from Spain, by the treaty?—What increase was made to the national debt by this war?

329. By whom had Ireland been governed since the peace of Limerick?—What severe laws were passed upon the Catholics?
330. Mention the acts passed for the suppression of popery in Ireland after the death of William III.—What effect had these laws upon the Catholics?—What acts were passed against the Catholics in 1726 and 1728?
331. What occasioned the rise of the patriotic party in the Irish Parliament?—Who was the author of the *Drapier's Letters*, and what was their object?
332. What raised the fears of the English Parliament regarding the loyalty of Ireland?—What effect had the Earl of Chesterfield's administration upon the Irish?
333. What political party held the chief power under the Brunswick family until the time of George III.?—Name the principal leaders of that party.—What circumstances brought about a change?
334. What led to the resignation of the Earl of Bute, and when did he retire?
335. Who was John Wilkes, and what was he noted for?—Who succeeded Bute in the premiership, and what was his first act?—On what kind of warrant was Wilkes arrested?—On what ground was he released?—What was the popular feeling regarding the treatment of Wilkes?—What advantage did the country derive from his trial?
336. For what is the Grenville administration chiefly remarkable?—Describe the inhabitants of the American colonies.—How did the colonists meet the attempt to impose taxes upon them?
337. In what position did the conduct of the colonists place the home government?—What agreement was at length come to?
338. Under whose administration was the repeal of the Stamp Act effected?—Who took the direction of affairs in the next ministry?—How did the Earl of Chesterfield characterise the elevation of Pitt to the premiership?—What suspicion was attached to the ministries of the period?
339. What act relating to America was passed in 1767, and at whose suggestion?—How did the Americans meet this new attempt at taxation?
340. Who became premier in 1768?—Give an account of the candidature of Mr Wilkes for Middlesex.
341. What effect had these proceedings in the House of Commons, and in the country?—What famous letters appeared at this time, and what was their nature?
342. What amendment to the king's speech was moved at the opening of parliament in 1770, and how was it received?—Who made his first parliamentary speech on this occasion?
343. Who succeeded the Duke of Grafton as premier?—How many

changes had there been in the government in the previous ten years?—What distinguished the new ministry from the former ones?

344. By what was the public mind still agitated?—What steps were taken by the opposition and by the people?—What was the policy of the king?

345. Give an account of the Lord Mayor's conduct before the king.

346. What effect had the policy of the king upon the agitations?

347. What modification of the act relating to American taxation was made under Lord North's ministry, and how was it received by the Americans?—What further concession was made, and with what result?

348. How did the Americans shew their determination not to receive taxed commodities?—What bill was passed in parliament in consequence?—How was it met by the Americans?—What did the government then resolve upon?

349. When did the American war begin?—What was the population of the colonies at the time?—Where was the first battle fought?—What proposal was made by the home government, and how was it met by the colonists?

350. What important document was issued by the American Congress in 1776?—Give an account of the progress of the war during the next two campaigns.

351. What great disaster befell the British in 1777?—What motion was made in the House of Commons in consequence, and how was it received?

352. What did the government find it necessary to do in 1778?—On what conditions did the colonists agree to listen to the proposal?—What powers now joined America in the contest?—How did Russia act?—What was the position of Britain in 1779?

353. How was the war now looked upon by the body of the people?—What motion was carried in the House of Commons in 1780?

354. What act relating to the Roman Catholics in England had been passed in 1778?—What effect had the fear of the extension of the act to Scotland upon the people of that country?—What association was formed in England?—Who was the leader of this body?—Give an account of the Gordon riots.—On what charge was Lord George Gordon brought to trial, and what was the result of the trial?

355. With what success did the British army meet under General Clinton in 1780?—Give an account of the proceedings of Lord Cornwallis.—Who was now at the head of the American army?—What event virtually brought the war to a close, and when?

356. What does the result of the American war prove?—What were the proceedings of the home parliament at the commencement of the next session?—How long had the North ministry been in power?—Characterise its administration.

357. Who were the leaders in the new ministry; and what was their policy?—What victory was gained by the British in 1782?—Where, and when, was a treaty of peace with the American States signed?—How was the first American ambassador received by the king?
358. Describe the state of the country at the conclusion of the American war.
359. Who succeeded the Marquis of Rockingham as premier?—Who became Chancellor of the Exchequer, and how had he previously distinguished himself?
360. Of what parties was this new ministry composed, and by what name is it known?—What bill, brought forward by Mr Fox, was passed by the Commons?—How did the king act with regard to it?—Who was made prime-minister?
361. What was now the position of the king and his ministers with regard to the House of Commons?—When did the king dissolve parliament?—What was the result of the new election?
362. Describe the state of Ireland during the latter years of the reign of George II.
363. What address was presented to the Lord-lieutenant by the associated body of Catholics, and how was it received?—Who were the White-boys, and why so called?—What change in the duration of the Irish Parliament was made in 1768?—What privileges did the Catholics now begin to acquire?
364. What effect had the American war upon the Irish, and how did they act?—What resolutions were passed by the volunteers?—What was done with regard to Poyning's law, and what other acts were passed?
365. What was the great object of Mr Pitt's ministry?—What were the leading features of the bill which he proposed to lay before the Commons in 1785, and how were they received?—What progress towards parliamentary reform was made in England and Scotland during 1784–1785?
366. What scheme did Mr Pitt originate in 1786?—Give an account of it.—What amendment was added to it by Mr Fox?
367. Give an account of the trial of Warren Hastings.
368. Give an account of the conduct of the Prince of Wales.
369. What made the appointment of a regent necessary?—On what grounds did Mr Fox contend for the appointment of the Prince of Wales?—What objections were raised by Mr Pitt?—What rendered the appointment unnecessary?—What is strikingly shewn by the debates on the regency question?
370. What was the state of the commerce and manufactures of the country at the beginning of the reign of George III.?—What progress had Scotland made since the rebellion of 1745?
371. Name the principal inventions by which the manufacture of cotton goods was much improved, and by whom.

372. What other events mark the early part of the reign of George III. ?
—Who were the principal painters during this reign ?—Mention the names of the period famous in science and in literature.
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373. When did the French Revolution commence, and how were the British people affected by it ?
374. What steps were taken at this time for the furtherance of reform ?
—What was the nature of Mr Burke's pamphlet ?
375. What steps were taken by Austria and Prussia, and how were they received by France ?—Give an account of the Duke of Brunswick's campaign.—What became of the French king ?
376. By what measures of the French Convention was the alarm of Europe increased ?—Relate the circumstances and motives which led the British government to make war with France.
377. What was the feeling of the English people with regard to the French war ?—What was the fate of the advocates of reform in England and Scotland ?
378. What were the first steps taken by the British in the war with France ?—Who was the head of the French republican party ?—How did Prussia afterwards act ?—What victory was gained by the British, and when ?—What were the results to the British of this campaign ?—Give an account of the discontent in England in 1795, and the consequent proceedings of the government.—Why were the negotiations with France broken off ?—What was the Cisalpine Republic ?—What country first made peace with France, and why ?—Who was the leader of the French in the Italian campaign ?—Give an account of the French attempt on Ireland, with date.—What power next declared war against Britain, and in what year ?
379. What was the effect of a threatened invasion by France on the British people and ministers ?—How was the currency affected, and why ?
380. What new cause for alarm arose at home in 1797 ?—Give an account of the mutiny at the Nore.
381. Give an account of the British naval victories of 1797.
382. Give an account of the proceedings of the French in 1798.—What states formed the new confederacy, and what was their object ?
383. Give an account of the campaigns of 1799.
384. To what were the reverses experienced by France in 1799 attributed ?
—What steps were taken by Bonaparte ?
385. Relate the principal events in connection with the French war in 1800.—Give an account of the movements of Napoleon and Moreau, and their results.
386. What was the position of Britain in the beginning of 1801 ?—In

- what expedition was Nelson engaged in?—What was the cause of the breaking up of the northern confederacy?—What led to the concluding of a peace with France?—Why was a new ministry appointed?
387. What acquisition of territory had Britain made in this war?—What were her losses and gains at sea, and the expense of the contest?
388. What were the proceedings in Ireland in 1783 and 1784?—Give an account of Mr Pitt's attempts to conciliate the Irish.
389. What was the effect on the Irish of the revolutionary proceedings in France?—Who were the United Irishmen, and what was their object?—What action was taken by the Catholics at this time?—What measures were passed by the government with regard to Ireland?
390. Give an account of the relations between the United Irishmen and the French government, and the consequent measures taken by the British ministry.—What advantages were obtained by the Catholics?
391. Give an account of the secret societies and directory in Ireland, and their objects.—What steps were taken by the government in 1796 and 1797?—How did the unions behave?
392. What demonstration was made by France in favour of Ireland in 1796, and how did it succeed?—Give an account of the further proceedings of the Irish directory.
393. Give an account of the suppression of the rebellion of 1798.
394. Describe the circumstances connected with the next landing of the French in Ireland.
395. Relate the steps taken to bring about the union between Great Britain and Ireland, and the terms of the act.
396. What effect had the union upon the Irish people?—Give an account of Emmett's conspiracy.
397. What led to the renewal of war with France, and when?—What steps were taken on each side?—To what condition was Napoleon elevated in 1804?—What change took place in the British ministry in the same year?
398. Of what powers was the new coalition formed, and what was its object?—What power sided with France?—Describe the battle of Trafalgar, and its result.—Describe in detail Napoleon's successes in Germany.
399. In what year did Pitt die?—Describe his character and policy.
400. Who were the leaders of the ministry that succeeded Mr Pitt's?—What was the policy of the new ministry with regard to France and the Catholics?—What was the feeling of the king towards the Catholics?—When did Mr Fox die?—Give an account of his character and life.
401. What powers formed the new coalition?—Relate the proceedings of Napoleon's 'Grand Army.'—What were the Berlin decrees?
402. Describe Napoleon's expedition against Russia.—Give the date of

- the treaty of Tilsit, and state its provisions.—What was the position of France at this time with regard to Europe ?
403. What caused the downfall of the Grenville administration ?—By whom was it succeeded ?—How was the new ministry regarded by the people ?—What was the first step of the new ministry, and how was it received ?
404. What was now the policy of Napoleon, and the character of the opposition which he encountered ?
405. What caused the revolt of the Spanish people against the French ?—What steps were taken by Britain in consequence ?—Give an account of Wellesley's campaign.—Give an account of the campaign of Sir John Moore.
406. Relate the circumstances connected with the marriage of the Prince of Wales.
407. Give an account of the Austrian campaign of 1809 and its results.—Whom did Napoleon marry, and why was his first wife divorced ?
408. Give an account of the Walcheren expedition.
409. Give an account of the Peninsular campaign of 1809.
410. Describe the Peninsular campaign of 1810.
411. Describe the Peninsular campaign of 1811.
412. Give an account of the Burdett agitation.
413. Relate the circumstances connected with the appointment of a regent.—What was the regent's policy ?
414. What was the condition of Britain and the position of Bonaparte in 1811 ?
415. How was the power of Napoleon used, and what were the effects of it ?
416. Describe Napoleon's Russian campaign.
417. Describe the campaigns of 1813.
418. What caused a change in the British ministry in 1812 ?—Who formed the next ministry ?
419. What was the condition of the British people in 1812 ?
420. Give an account of the American war, its origin and results.
421. What arrangement was made with Napoleon in 1814, and how was it brought about ?
422. When was peace proclaimed, and what was the settlement made ?—How was Wellington treated ?—How did Great Britain otherwise act in connection with the peace ?
423. Give an account of Napoleon's reinstatement on the French throne.
424. What steps were taken to oppose Napoleon, and by whom ?—What was Napoleon's policy, and how did it succeed ?

425. Give an account of the battle of Waterloo, and the subsequent fate of Napoleon.
426. Who was now placed on the throne of France?—What were the expenses of Britain during the last year?
427. What was the so-called Holy Alliance, and what led to it?—How was it received by the British government?
428. What effect had the reaction in Britain?—How was the security of the aristocracy indicated?—What restriction was put upon the importation of grain?
429. To whom was the Princess Charlotte married, and when?—Give the date of her death.
430. What town was besieged by the British in 1816, and with what result?
431. What were the causes of the distress of 1816 and following years?
432. What resulted from the depressed state of the country?—What expedients did the government resort to?
433. When did the distress of the country reach its highest point?—How did the people of Birmingham act?—Give an account of the proceedings at Manchester.
434. What acts were passed by parliament on its reassembling?
435. At what age, and in what year did George III. die?—By whom was he succeeded?—How long had the late king been insane?
436. What prevented Britain from suffering as much during the war as the other countries engaged in it?
437. For what improvement in navigation is the reign of George III. remarkable?—When, and by whom was the first steam-vessel launched on the Clyde?
438. By whom were Sunday schools established?—What system of education was originated by Dr Bell of Madras?—What societies had their rise in this reign?
439. What social improvements were made during the latter years of the reign of George III.?
440. Give an account of the eminent literary men of the period.
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441. By what plot was the commencement of the reign of George IV. disturbed?—Give an account of it.
442. What induced the queen to return from Italy?—How was she received by the people?—Why was her trial abandoned?—How was she treated at the king's coronation, and what was the result of the treatment she had undergone?
443. When did the king visit Ireland, and how was he received?—When

did he visit Scotland, and how was he received?—What happened in England during the king's absence?—Who now became Minister of Foreign Affairs, and what was his character?

444. What important measures affecting commerce were originated by Mr Huskisson?—How were the commercial relations with other countries extended?

445. What inducements were there for forming joint-stock companies at this time?—What rendered their objects dangerous?—What was the effect of the depressed state of trade in 1821, 1822, and what caused a reaction?—Give an account of the commercial crisis that ensued.—How was this state of matters ameliorated?

446. What change took place in the ministry in 1827?—By whom was Canning succeeded?—On Goderich's resignation, who became Premier, and who Home Secretary?

447. What acts were repealed by the new ministry?—What had been the nature of these acts?—What caused the agitation in Ireland at this time?—Who was the leader of the movement?—When was the Catholic Emancipation Act passed?—What name did the Tory party assume about this time?—When did the king die?

448. Give an account of the war that occurred in India during this reign.

449. In what European war were the British engaged during Mr Canning's administration, and what was its result?

450. By whom was George IV. succeeded?—What occurred in France at this time, and what effect had it upon Britain?—Who was the leader of the new Whig ministry?—What change was this ministry expected to make in parliamentary representation?—What change was it thought advisable to make?—What party opposed the Reform Bill?—What course did the ministry adopt to secure the passing of the measure?—When was it passed?

451. What municipal reform took place in Scotland in 1833?—How did that of England differ from it?—When did a similar reform take place in Ireland?

452. What advantages have the middle classes derived from the passing of these reform bills?

453. What amendment was made in the poor-laws in 1834?—What was the result of this amendment?

454. What important act affecting the colonies was passed in this reign?—Give the date.—When did slavery entirely cease?

455. What commercial changes took place in this reign?—What other measures, advantageous to the people, were passed?

456. What led to the resignation of Earl Grey's ministry?—By whom was he succeeded?—Name the chief acts passed by this ministry.

457. Give some account of the extension of the railway system during the reign of William IV.—Relate what you know of the railway traffic of the United Kingdom in 1864.
458. What bill was brought before the Commons in 1837?—At what age, and in what year of his reign did William IV. die?—What was his character?
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459. Give the dates of the accession, coronation, and marriage of Queen Victoria.—To whom was she married?—What visits were made by the Queen in 1843?—What royal visits were made at home and abroad in 1845?
460. In what way was the year 1839 disturbed?—What did the Chartists propose to contend for?
461. How were the Whig ministry and measures regarded at this time?—When did the dissolution of parliament take place?—Who was the new Premier?
462. What popular agitation was raised in Ireland in 1843?—What steps were taken by the government in connection with it?
463. Give an account of the disturbance in South Wales.
464. Give an account of the origin of the Free Church of Scotland.
465. Who were the Tractarians, and why were they so called?—By what other name are they known, and why?—What object have they in view?—What effect has the rise of the party had on the English Church?—To what have all these religious jealousies been an obstacle?
466. What alteration was made at this time on the monetary system of the country, and what was its effect?
467. What was the most important measure of the Peel administration?—Give an account of the Corn-laws and their abolition.—How were these measures received by the people?—How did they affect Sir Robert Peel?—By whom was he succeeded?
468. What was the general tendency of the measures passed for some years after this?
469. For what was the year 1845 remarkable?—What were the results of this speculation?
470. By what was the peace of Europe disturbed in 1848?
471. Give an account of the famine in Ireland.
472. What has been the condition of Great Britain generally since 1848?
473. What efforts were made during this period for the diffusion of knowledge?
474. Give an account of the rebellion in Canada.—When was the boundary treaty arranged with the United States, and what was its effect?

475. Give an account of the Chinese war of 1840-42, and its results.
476. Who was Mahomet Ali, and what were his proceedings?
477. Give an account of the Affghanistan and Sikh wars.
478. Describe the French revolution of 1848.—Who became the new ruler of France?—When was the empire restored in France?
479. Give an account of the Great Exhibition of 1851.
480. What became of the Exhibition building?
481. What was the origin of the war with Russia, and when was it declared?
482. What other feelings were mixed up with the desire to assist Turkey?
483. How long did the war last?—By what other power were France and England joined?—What part did the other powers take in the contest?—What were the chief scenes of operation?—Describe the Baltic campaigns of 1854-55.
484. What were the successes of the Turks during 1853-54?—Give an account of the operations in the Crimea during 1854-55.—When did the Czar Nicholas die, and by whom was he succeeded?
485. How did both sides act during the winter?—What power now interfered in the war, and what was the result?
486. What were the terms of the treaty signed at Paris?—How was the announcement of peace received in Britain, and why?
487. What occasioned the war with China?—Give an account of the operations.—When and where was peace signed, and what were the terms of the treaty?—Give an account of the next war with China, its occasion, and result.
488. What did the war with China lead to at home?—What was the result of the new election?—What was one of the most important domestic measures occupying parliament at this time?—Give an account of the monetary panic of this year.—What were the other principal events of the year?
489. To whom was the Princess Royal married?—Give an account of the circumstances connected with the Conspiracy Bill.—Who succeeded Lord Palmerston?—What measures were carried by the new administration?—What was the object of the bill?—What were the other principal events of the year?
490. Describe the Italian campaign of 1859.—Give an account of Garibaldi's proceedings in 1860-61.—Give an account of the reform question in parliament in 1859-60.—What was the fate of the Paper Bill?—Give an account of the origin and progress of the Volunteer movement.
491. Give an account of the origin and early progress of the American civil war.
492. What position did Britain maintain towards the two parties, and how did it affect the Northern States?—Give an account of the

Trent affair.—When did the war terminate, and how was it brought to a close?—What was the fate of President Lincoln?—What beneficial effect had the war?

493. When did Prince Albert die?—How was Britain affected by the American war?—What was the principal home event of 1862?

494. Who was king of Greece previous to 1863?—What was the cause of the Greek revolution?—Who was elected king of Greece, and when?—What territory was ceded to Greece by Britain on this occasion?—How long had the islands been under the protection of Britain?—What was the great domestic event of 1863?—To whom was the Prince of Wales married?

495. Give an account of the Slesvig-Holstein war and its cause.—How did it end, and what did it afterwards occasion?—Describe the Prusso-Austrian war.—Of what states does the North German Confederation consist?—How was Italy affected by the war?

496. When did Lord Palmerston die?—What unusual occurrence took place this year in connection with parliament?—When did the new parliament meet, and who were at the head of the government?—What bill was brought forward by the Liberal ministry, and what was its fate?—Who were the leaders of the Conservative government?

497. What great enterprise was accomplished in 1866?—By what means was the laying of the telegraph accomplished?—Describe the proceedings of the Fenians in 1866-67.

498. Give an account of the Reform Bill of 1867.

499. Give an account of the Abyssinian war and its origin.—What befell the Duke of Edinburgh in Australia?

500. What minister resigned in the beginning of 1868?—By whom was he succeeded?—What were the principal measures passed during this session?—What was the great question of the session, and by what was it precipitated?—What motion did Mr Gladstone propose in the debate on the Irish Reform Bill?—In what way did this question affect government?—What resolution was at last come to on the subject?—What was done in consequence of this resolution?—Which policy was the majority of constituencies in favour of?—How did Mr Disraeli act in consequence?—Who then became Prime Minister?—What were the principal acts passed by the new government?—What led to the formation of a new administration?—When did Lord Derby die?

500*. What were the results of the Franco-Prussian war?—What was the fate of Napoleon III.?—What were the Alabama claims, and how were they settled?—Give an account of the Ashantee war.—Mention the more recent domestic events.

Present State of the British Empire.

501. Of what territories does the British empire consist?
502. What is the area of the British Islands?—What was the population in 1861, in round numbers?—Give in round numbers the respective areas and populations of the principal divisions of the United Kingdom.
503. Name the respective capitals of the three countries, and give a short account of each.
504. Give a sketch of the physical features of England.—What is remarkable respecting the towns of England?
505. What are the physical features of Scotland?
506. What are the physical features of Ireland?—What advantages does Ireland possess from its situation?—What qualities appear to be wanting to the Irish people?
- 507, 508. Describe the character, manners, and habits of the English people.
509. On what features of character does the importance attained by Britain appear chiefly to depend?
510. What is the condition of agriculture in Britain?
511. Give a short account of the mineral wealth of Great Britain.
512. To what is Britain's superiority in manufactures and commerce due?
513. Give an account of the progress of the following manufactures, naming their chief seats: (513) Cotton, (514) Woollen, (515) Linen, (516) Silk, (517) Hardware.
518. Mention the more important miscellaneous manufactures.
519. Name the principal ports of Britain.
520. Of what do the imports and exports respectively consist, and what is their value?
521. Give an account of the currency of the United Kingdom.
522. State what you know of Savings-banks.

523. Give a short sketch of the government of Great Britain.—How is parliament constituted ?
524. What principles are combined in the British Constitution ?
525. Give an account of the influence possessed at different periods by the different powers forming the legislature.
526. What is the number of members in the House of Lords ?
527. Of how many members does the House of Commons consist ?
528. What are the provisions of the Reform Act of 1867 ?
529. How are Peers returned or elected to the House of Lords ?
530. What are the functions of the king ?
531. Of whom does the Cabinet consist ?—What is the Privy-council ?
532. Give an account of the progress of a bill in parliament.
533. Name the chief sources of public revenue, and give an account of each.
534. What is the amount of the revenue and of the expenditure of the United Kingdom ?
535. What is the amount of the national debt, and of the interest payable on it ?
536. How are the colonies governed ?
- 537–539. Give an account of the British army and navy.
540. Describe the two kinds of English law.
541. What are the principal tribunals of England and Ireland, and what kinds of cases are tried by them respectively ?
542. What portions of the British Islands possess peculiar privileges ?
543. What is the nature of Scottish law, and how is it administered ?
544. Explain what is meant by Trial by Jury, and how it is carried out in different parts of the United Kingdom.
545. What is the nature and procedure of the House of Lords as a court ?
546. What right is looked upon as the bulwark of British freedom ?
547. What is the form of religion in the three kingdoms respectively ?
548. Give an account of the Church in England, Ireland, and Scotland respectively.
549. What are the principal educational institutions in England ?—(550) In Ireland ?—(551) In Scotland ?
552. What is the nature of primary instruction in each of the three kingdoms, and how is it supported ?—What is the principle of education in the colonies ?
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